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SHORTHAND INSTRUCTION AND PRACTICE.

BY

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AUTHOR OF NO. 2, 1884, "THE TEACHING, PRACTICE, AND LITERATURE OF SHORTHAND."

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., November 18, 1892.

SIR: In 1884 this Bureau, endeavoring to meet the demand for information on the general lines of educational work, published a circular of information on the subject of the teaching, practice, and literature of shorthand. Mr. Julius Ensign Rockwell, at one time stenographer in this Office, undertook the work and completed it in a satisfactory manner. Of that circular an edition of 20,000 was soon distributed, and was followed by another of equal size, which was exhausted in a few years, and for the past three years I may say that there have been more frequent calls for this circular than for any other published by the Bureau of Education. I have accordingly procured from its author a revision of the work. Much of the former matter is omitted and some new material inserted. One important addition is a digest of legal decisions in regard to shorthand writers, while the bibliography of shorthand works in the English language has been omitted in the second.

It will be seen in the chapter giving the statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States (pp. 40–141) that the system mainly followed is that of Isaac Pitman.* Few inventors within the last two hundred years have been so happy as he in discovering devices that have proved useful in practice and at the same time called forth universal admiration for their theoretic perfection. Although the art of stenography is very old, dating from the first epoch of legal advocates, yet the early systems of representing words were full of capricious abbreviations, and the successful stenographer was required to carry in his memory a long list of arbitrary word signs which were formed on an irrational basis. Isaac Pitman made a scientific study of phonology and based his alphabet on its principles, and to indicate this called his system phonography. The characters used by him fall into groups expressing by their resemblance in shape and position the relations of the elementary sounds for which they stand. On this basis the briefest systems of reporting style have grown up. Many reporters, masters in the use of this style, have been able to write as many as two hundred words a minute and read their notes with facility.

It will be seen by the chronological lists of English and American authors of text-books (pp. 14–19) that very many systems have been published that are but slight modifications upon the system of phonography, so called from its chief feature, which is the attempt to rep-

SHORTHAND INSTRUCTION AND PRACTICE.

SHORTHAND SYSTEMS.

The earliest use of shorthand is involved in much uncertainty. Allusions to rapid writing in classical and scriptural works which were formerly supposed to refer to stenography are not now believed to warrant such renderings, and the translation of the statement of Diogenes Laertius to mean that Xenophon took down in characters the lectures of Socrates is unjustifiable. It is, however, conceded that short writing was used in Greece as early as the year 195 A. D., though no specimens of authentic Greek tachygraphy earlier than the tenth century are now known. In Rome Marcus Tullius Tiro, the freedman and friend of Cicero, undoubtedly used a method of stenography as early as the year 60 B. C., and the art is said to have been taught in schools. The Emperor Titus is mentioned as an expert notarius. The use of "Notæ Tironianæ" seems to have been revived in the ninth and tenth centuries, and, owing to the general use of wax tablets among the Romans, our knowledge of the method of Tiro has been principally gained from a study of these later writings.

The first English treatise on shorthand was entitled "Characterie—An Arte of shorte, swifte, and secrete writing by Character Inuented by Timothe Bright, Doctor of Phisike. Imprinted at London by I. Windet, the Assigne of Tim. Bright, 1588. Cum priuilegio Regiae Maiestatis. Forbidding all other to print the same." Doctor Bright was for a time a physician in St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London, and was afterwards rector of churches at Methley and Berwick-in-Elmet, in Yorkshire, and is known as the author of several works on medical and religious subjects. His shorthand method was dedicated "To the Most high and mightie Prince Elizabeth, by the Grace of God, of England, Fraunce, and Ireland, Queene, Defender of the Faith, &cc."

"Cicero," Bright said, "did account it worthie his labour, and no less profitable to the Roman common weale (Most gracious Soueraigne) to inuent a speedie kinde of wryting by Character, as Plutarch reporteth in the life of Cato the yonger. This invention was increased afterward by Seneca; that the number of characters grue to 7,000. Whether through iniure of time, or that the men gaue it over for tedious-

nes of learning, nothing remaineth extant of Cicero's inuention at this day. Upon consideration of the great vse of such a kinde of writing, I haue inuented the like: of fewe Characters, short and easie, euery Character answering a word: My Inuention meere English, without precept, or imitation of any. The uses are diuers: Short, that a swifte hande may therewith write orations, or publike actions of speach, vttered as becometh the graunite of such actions, Verbatim. Secrete as no kinde of wryting like. And herein (besides other properties) excelling the wryting by letters and Alphabet, in that, Nations of strange languages, may hereby communicate their meaning together in writing, though of sundrie tonges."

After rehearsing his reasons for dedicating his "Characterie" to the Queen, Bright adds: "If it may be so happy as to inioye the influence of your Maiesties fauoure and good liking, I doubt not, but it will growe up, be embraced, and yeeld profitable fruit unto many, & I myself thereby shal have atteined for my particular respect, that which in a lower degree, many shal enjoy by the vse of this my inuentiō, which I hope (be it said with modestie) wanteth little to equall it, with that old deuise of Ciceroes, but your Maiesties alowance, & Ciceroes name."

Although the method was clumsy and incapable of accomplishing the purpose for which it was invented, yet a brief description may be interesting. The system was not alphabetic in the sense in which that term is commonly understood. The author alludes to the signs as alphabetical, however, and in his "Characterie Table" each alphabetical group of words is represented by signs identical at their beginnings. Thus all words beginning with A were composed of a perpendicular stroke, the signification of the words depending on an addition at the base. There were four slopes that could be given to each letter and twelve ways of varying the base, so that forty-eight words could be written under each letter of the alphabet when necessary, though this was seldom done. For instance, under A in the "Characterie List" are twenty-four words, under B forty, and under C (which includes K and Q) the full quota of forty-eight, each separate part having also its own alphabetical arrangement, doubtless to assist the memory. The alphabetical signs are the following:

A B C D E F G H I L M N O P R S T U.

The character for C represents also K and Q; that for I, J and Y; and U, V and W.

The following twelve words will show the twelve terminal marks applied to the perpendicular form of the letter A:

abound.	accuse.	again.	almost.
about.	advance.	age.	also.
accept.	air.	all.	although.

"The Characterie Table" covers 11 pages and contains 537 words followed by the respective shorthand forms, all of which are to be committed to memory. The "Appellatiue Words" are included on 28 pages, while the "Table of English Wordes," or dictionary, fills 180 pages. By applying a particular mark, generally a dot, to one side or the other of a "Characterie" word the meaning is changed to a synonymous word or one of contrary meaning, according to position. The dictionary is intended to indicate synonymous words, and begins, "abandon, *forsake;* abase, *high;* abashe, *blush;* abate, *great;* abbey, *companie;* abbote, *bishop;* abette, *defend;* abhominable, *filthie;* abhorring, *flee;* abyde, *continue;* abilitie, *can;* able, *can;* abolish, *destroy;* aboue, *ouer.*" Under "Aer." the following "Appelatiue Words" are given: breath, exhalation, miste, reeke, steame, vapour. Under "Arte:" Alchemie, arithmetike, astrologie, astronomie, chronographie, cosmographie, geographie, geomotrie, logike, musike, poetrie, rhetorike. By applying a mark to a general word the particular word intended could be indicated. "A word of the same sound, though of diuerse sense is written with the same, as fast, for abstinence from meat, for swiftness and sureness; so if it much differ not," as whole and hole. "Primitiues and deriuatiues are known by the language, as he is a virtuous man, not a virtue man." Words ending in ship or hood require "the character of ship to be placed underneath, and whether it, or hood be to be read, the language will plainly deliver. For no man will read either neighborship or friendhood." A dash drawn through a character changed its signification, the sign for "good" with a dash across it being read as "not good."

Peter Bales, a teacher of penmanship, brought out a system of shorthand two years after the publication of Bright's treatise. This formed the first part of a volume entitled "The Writing Schoolemaster. Conteining three Bookes in one; The first, teaching Swift writing; The Second, True writing; The third, Faire writing. The first booke, Entituled; The Art of Brachygraphie: that is, to write as fast as a man speaketh treatably, writing but one letter for a word; Verie commodious for the generall encrease and furtherance of learning in all Estates and degrees: the knowledge whereof may easily be attained by one moneths studie, and the performance by one moneths practise. The proofe alreadie made by diuerse Schollers therein." Bales' brachygraphy was a method of abbreviated longhand, the object being, as stated, to represent each word by a single letter, the various words being distinguished by placing about the letters certain dots, commas, and other marks in various positions.

In 1602 John Willis, a bachelor of divinity, published anonymously at London "The Art of Stenographie, Teaching by plaine and certaine Rules, to the Capacitie of the meanest, and for the use of all professions, The way of compendious Writing." This was the first system having a true stenographic alphabet, and its author distinguished his

method from those of his predecessors by calling it in later editions issued under his own name "Spelling Characterie." The alphabet will be found in the appended plate. Willis discarded the use of superfluous letters, represented c by k or s, the digraph ph by f, g by g or j, etc. "In every word," he said, "those letters are to be omitted which are but lightly or not at all sounded, whether they be vowels or consonants." Thirteen or more editions of this system were printed, a "Schoolmaster," still further explaining it, also being several times republished, and the "Psalmes" were engraved in this "character." Edmond Willis brought out in 1618 "An Abreuiation of writing by character," in which new signs were chosen for most of the letters.

No less than half a dozen shorthand systems had appeared after the publication of Edmond Willis's "Character" when Jeremiah Rich, in 1642, printed the Semography of his uncle, William Cartwright. This was destined to greater prominence than any other method had enjoyed and during the next one hundred and fifty years editions appeared from time to time; while as late as 1840 an improvement of Rich's system by the eminent divine Dr. Philip Doddridge was republished in London. Addy, Botley, and Stringer were indebted to Cartwright and Rich for the systems published under their respective names.

Thirty years after Cartwright's method was given to the world William Mason brought out "A pen pluck'd from an eagle's wing." Other books containing modifications of his method or new principles were issued in succeeding years and it was the system of this author, issued about 1720, entitled "La Plume Volante," which Thomas Gurney improved and published about 1750, and used in his work as stenographer in reporting trials at the Old Bailey in London. Twenty regular editions of Gurney's works, extending over one hundred and thirty years, have been issued, while the method has been republished by others in various forms. This system has been used in the Gallery of the British Parliament for more than a century, and Mr. Gurney-Salter states that it is the means of reporting the evidence printed in at least three-fourths of the blue books of parliamentary committees, royal commissions, etc., besides a large number of other inquiries, official and non-official.

John Byrom, of Manchester, a fellow of the Royal Society, invented a system of stenography which was published in 1767, after his death, under the title "The Universal English Shorthand." This system has been republished by a number of persons and is still used to some extent in England.

Dr. William Fordyce Mavor brought out a shorthand system in 1778. A new method issued two years later and entitled "Universal Stenography," became very popular, passed through ten editions, and is practiced at this day by a few professional shorthand writers in London.

"An essay intended to establish a standard for an universal system of stenography," by Samuel Taylor, published in London in 1786,

marks another stenographic era. The work passed through many editions, was reprinted in the United States, and the system adapted to the French, German, and Italian languages. The method was republished in more or less modified forms and manifold editions by Odell, Harding, Gould, and others. Next to Isaac Pitman's phonography Taylor's system is most used by English reporters for the press.

The publication of Isaac Pitman's "Stenographic Soundhand" in 1837 marked the beginning of the greatest epoch in the history of English shorthand.

The Phonographic Journal, lithographed in phonography, made its appearance in Manchester in January, 1842. This was afterwards known as the Phonotypic and later as the Phonetic Journal, and is now in its fiftieth volume, 25,000 copies being issued each week.

On the 1st of March, 1843, a "Phonographic Corresponding Society" was formed to correct the exercises of learners gratuitously through the mails. In four years the membership had reached 1,000. The name was afterwards changed to the Phonetic Society, and its existence to the present time has been uninterrupted.

The changes through which the system has passed will be of interest as showing the varied uses of stenographic material which have been suggested and practiced in half a century.

The appended plate contains the alphabet of 1837, and it will be seen that the letters t, d, k, g, th, th̄, m, n, l, r, ng, and y, and the small circle form for s remain unchanged at the present time. Dots[1] placed at the beginning, middle, or end of a consonant stroke represented the vowels ē, ā, ä,[2] while dashes in the same positions stood for a̤, ō, ōō, and small semicircles similarly placed indicated ī, ū, and oi, respectively. Ou was shown by a small acute angle pointed downward in first position, which in 1840 was selected for ī. Initial hooks indicated an added l or r. Only one sign, written upward, was used to represent r and when standing alone a tick was placed before it, the whole resembling a bookkeeper's check mark.

In the edition of 1840 great changes were made and the system was called "phonography." The alphabet appeared with a dozen new consonants, as shown in the accompanying plate. No consonant signs were provided for w and y, but small half circles were made to represent these sounds with a vowel following, in the three positions of the dot and dash vowels, small acute angles represented ī, oi, and ou, while right angles were used for wi and wow. L and r were joined to strokes either initially or finally, and r was added to l by making it heavy, while the shading of m changed its signification to mp. Making a character half its length added t or d, or n, the principle not being uniformly applied. This edition was issued on a sheet 7 by 8½ inches, printed on one side, the characters being engraved on copper,

[1] See Isaac Pitman's alphabet in plate under date of 1871.

[2] The diacritical marks are explained on the page prefacing the series of alphabets.

and it sold for a penny. Its publication was contemporaneous with the introduction of penny postage in Great Britain and cheap postal rates favored its distribution. The third edition was issued in September, 1840, on two large sheets, while the fourth edition (1841) was a sheet 11 by 9 inches, printed on both sides with type and woodcuts. Like the preceding it was referred to as an edition not on account of changes in the system but to indicate its altered form of publication.

In 1842 the fifth edition appeared in three different forms known as the pocket, school, and people's editions, and published at prices varying from threepence to two shillings. In this edition the curved downward r was introduced, which was thickened to add l.

The sixth edition (1844), issued on a sheet while the seventh was being prepared in book form, introduced the seven-vowel scale, as follows:

Long: ē, ā, ä, a̱, uh, ō, ōō.
Short: ĭ, ĕ, ă, ŏ, ŭ, ŏŏ.

From 1844 to 1847 this scale, which had been suggested by A. J. Ellis, was used, but Mr. Pitman states, "The loud and continued dissatisfaction of nearly all the friends of phonetic spelling, and the impossibility of working the scheme satisfactorily, at length induced Mr. Ellis to consent to the rejection of the long uh, and with the appearance of the eighth edition, containing the old six-vowel scale, phonography sprang into new life." At this time all letters were halved to add t or d uniformly.

After the second edition Mr. Pitman says the "next important edition was the seventh, in January, 1845, containing many improvements, the result of the extensive practice which the system had then received from several thousand writers, who had used it in their correspondence and for all the purposes of common writing as well as for reporting. About two thousand copies monthly were sold of this edition, which was kept constantly standing in type, till the experience of teachers suggested improvements in the arrangement of the work, and a few minor matters of detail were found to need revision."

In the seventh edition loops for st and str were introduced; lr was represented by a hook placed before the character for l as well as by making the l heavy, and rl was expressed by a hook preceding the r. Final hooks for r and l were changed to represent n and tion.

The eighth edition, which was issued in 1847, introduced a hook struck backward before treble consonants to indicate n.

New signs for w and y were given in 1852 in the ninth edition, these being the curved characters for r and l, respectively, made heavy; the sign previously given to y was accorded to h; initial hooks to the liquids (l, r, m, n), transformed them into wl, wr, wm, and wn, while to avoid confusion in placing initial hooks to m and n to add r, the m and n were thickened; curved letters were made of double length to add thr.

In 1857 the vowel scale was changed from ē, ā, ä, to ä, ā, ē. Upon the publication of this modification in the tenth edition a revolt among writers of the system arose. The contest was long and determined. The change was gradually accepted in England; but American phonographers generally refused to sanction it. Benn Pitman adhered to the old vowel scale, as did A. J. Graham and other phonographic publishers. When, in 1867, Munson's text-book appeared, the new vowel scale was incorporated in his system.

A small final hook on the involute side of straight strokes to represent f and v was introduced in the tenth edition; tion was indicated by a larger hook; a stroke form (the third h in the alphabet of 1871 in the plate) was given to h, and the lengthening of a curve added to the original letter tr, dr or thr, thr only having been added in the ninth edition.

According to the eleventh edition (1862) w and y were represented by the signs wr and h of the ninth edition as well as by the heavy curves assigned them ten years before; double-sized initial hooks were made to represent thl and fl, which could be written in two ways, as though made of wire and turned over, as could also the signs for thr and fr, the r hooks being half the size of the l hooks. The prefix *in* before h was written with a small curve turned upward or downward, as was most convenient for joining.

Of the twelfth edition Mr. Pitman said: "We have used up all the stenographic material, and, as we who know the system so well believe, have used it in the best manner. If anyone can produce additional material—some stenographic sign, any hook, or crook, or circle, or straight or curved stroke, in any direction, that is not employed in phonography, or of which he can show a better use—we are willing to listen to him; but until some such proposition as that comes before us there will be no change in phonographic writing." The ninth-edition sign for y became again lr, as it had been in the seventh edition, while the w of the ninth edition represented rk or rg.

In 1869 a large initial hook on k made kw, while a large initial circle on k represented skw; w and y were allowed but one sign each: viz, the ninth edition characters for wr and h. In 1873 an h was added to the w by making the initial hook larger, and the rk or rg of the twelfth edition was changed to rch or rj.

Certain straight letters were made double length in 1884 to add thr, etc. In 1887 a large initial circle was used for sw, skw being indicated by writing an s circle inside of a large initial hook on k. The use of the heavy curve for rch and rj was discontinued in 1888.

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST OF AUTHORS AND ANONYMOUS WORKS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

The following list includes only the names of those who have issued systems of shorthand or text-books on the art in the English language, with anonymous works of the same character. No mention is made of

works describing the advantages of the art, its history, literature, or practice, discussions of systems, magazines, works printed in shorthand characters, proceedings and other publications of stenographic societies, musical shorthand, shorthand numerals, or books of a similar scope.

The date following each name or work is that of the earliest authentic publication, and when the time of issue is not printed on the title page what is known or believed to be the date is given in parentheses.

Timothe Bright. 1588.
Peter Bales. 1590.
John Willis. 1602.
William Folkingham. 1618.
Edmond Willis. 1618.
William Labourer. 1620.
Thomas Shelton. 1620.
Willoughby. 1621.
Witt. 1630.
Henry Dix. 1633.
Mawd. 1635.
Theophilus Metcalfe. 1635.
William Cartwright. 1642.
Jeremiah Rich. 1646.
Simon West. 1647.
John Farthing. 1654.
George Dalgarno. (About 1656.)
Job Everardt. 1658.
Noah Bridges. 1659.
William Addy. (1664?)
Thomas Heath. 1664.
John Wilkins. 1668.
Pen's dexterity compleated. 1669.
William Hopkins. 1670.
William Facy. 1672.
William Mason. 1672.
S. Shelton. 1672.
Lawrence Steel. (1672.)
Samuel Botley. (1674.)
Elisha Coles. 1674.
Bartlett. (About 1675.)
Nathaniell Stringer. (1680?)
Art of short writing. 1684.
Moses Lane. 1687.
George Ridpath. 1687.
Ratcliffe. (1688?)
John West. (1690?)
Abraham Nicholas. 1692.
Walter Cross. 1698.
Henry Barmby. (1700.)
Francis Tanner. 1712.
Stenography. (1712.)
W. Mather. 1714.
Samuel Lane. (1715.)
Whole art of short writing. 1715.
James Weston. 1727.
Philip Gibbs. 1736.
William Webster. 1738.
Thomas Cumming. (About 1741.)
Thomas Andrews. 1744.
Aulay Macaulay. 1747.
W. C. 1748.
P. M. 1748.
Samuel Jeake. 1748.
Peter Annet. (1750.)
Thomas Gurney. 1750.
William Tiffin. (1750.)
John Angell. (1758.)
Jonathan Smart. 1759.
John Mitchell. 1760.
Thomas Stackhouse. (1760.)
Henry Taplin. (1760.)
James Swaine and Joseph Simms. (1761.)
David Lyle. 1762.
Alphabet of reason. 1763.
Mark-Anthony Meilan. 1764.
Anthony Clayton. 1765.
Wm. Holdsworth and Wm. Aldridge. (1766.)
John Byrom. 1767.
Joseph Gurney. 1773.
John Palmer. 1774.
Robert Graves and S. Ashton. 1775.
William Williamson. 1775.
Universal shorthand. 1776.
Shorthand dictionary. (1777.)
William F. Mavor. 1778.
William I. Blanchard. 1779.
Thomas Hervey. (1779.)
Francis Peck. 1779.
Edward Hodgson. (1780.)
Samuel Soare. 1780.
M. Nash. 1783.
New scheme. 1783.
John West. 1784.
Samuel Taylor. 1786.
Simon George Bordley. (1787.)
William Graham. 1787.
Elements of shorthand. 1787.
Brachygraphy. 1788.

Thomas Sarjeant. 1789.
Henry Clarke. (1790?)
Thomas Rees. (1790.)
New treatise. (About 1790.)
R. Tailor. 1791.
John Cary. 1793.
Thomas Molineux. 1796
A. Crome. 1798.
Philip Doddridge. 1799.
Greathead. (About 1800.)
William Harwin. 1800.
Thomas Hodson. 1800.
M. Radclyffe Prosser. 1800.
Samuel Richardson. 1800.
Henry Ewington. 1801.
Stenography; being, etc. 1801.
P. Roberts. 1802.
Richard Roe. 1802.
Pterography. 1802.
Stenography, or the art of shorthand perfected. 1802.
Gard. 1803.
Joseph Nightingale. (1803?)
H. D. Symonds and T. Ostell. 1804.
W. Williams. 1804.
The Amanuensis. (1804.)
George Nicholson. 1806.
Thomas Brand. 1807.
Benjamin Vale. 1808.
I. H. Clive. 1810.
C. Mangan. 1810.
Thomas Oxley. 1811.
E. Duncan. (1812?)
James Henry Lewis. 1812.
George Odell. 1812.
Samuel Sams. 1812.
Edward Lawson. 1813.
James Adams. (1814.)
John Dangerfield. 1814.
A. W. Stones. 1814.
Shorthand or the flying pen. 1814.
J. H. Bobbett. 1815.
T. Kitchingman. 1815.
James Mitchell. 1815.
Manual of short-hand. (About 1815.)
James Duncan. 1816.
Andrew Hunter. 1816.
William Gardiner. 1817
Aaron Floyd. 1818.
Thomas Lloyd. 1819.
Richard Farr. 1819.
William Gawtress. 1819.
J. Kelly. 1820.
Phinehas Bailey. 1821.
Peregrine Bingham. 1821.
A. Walker. 1821.
John Moon. 1822.
Jonathan Dodge. 1823.
Marcus T. C. Gould. 1823.
William Harding. 1823.
D. Hewett. 1823.
George Jackson. 1823.
Clement Walker. 1823.
H. L. Barnum. 1824.
W. Blair. 1824.
M. D. Finn. (1824.)
Charles John Green. 1824.
Henry Orme. 1824.
Isaac Stetson. 1824.
Shorthand simplified. 1824.
John Bennett. 1825.
Langdale. 1825.
Thomas Gibbons. 1825.
Duncan McDougal. 1825.
Henry Upington. 1825.
Easy introduction, etc. 1825.
W. A. Enfield. 1826.
Thomas Gardner. 1826.
E. Hinton. (1826.)
Anthony Peacock. (1826.)
Theophilus Williams. 1826.
T. D. Knight. 1828.
Charles Latham. 1828.
W. Reynolds. 1828.
Josias M. Steed. 1828.
System of shorthand. (About 1828.)
J. Carstairs. 1829.
Complete system of stenography. 1829.
G. H. Cooper. (About 1830.)
J. P. Grellet. (1830.)
J. Curtis. 1830.
William Snell. (1830?)
William Henshaw. 1831.
E. Lloyd. (1831.)
R. Shorter. 1831.
Thomas Towndrow. 1831.
Jasper and John Aitchison. 1832.
Erastus B. Bigelow. 1832.
John Henry Cooke. 1832.
G. W. Jones. (1832.)
W. H. Sigston. 1832.
Lorenzo D. Grosvenor. 1833.
Thomas Moat. 1833.
Thomas Parker. 1833.
Perkins. 1833.
Robert Cabell Roffe. 1833.
John Wells. 1833.
John Gardner. 1834.
Laming Warren Tear. 1834.
Wood. 1834.

Daniel Cadman. (1835.)
R. Feeny. 1835.
J. George. 1835.
William Whitehead. (1835.)
Complete system of short hand. (1835.)
H. W. Day. 1836.
Thomas How. 1836.
Charles Kerin. 1836.
I. Nelson. 1836.
Joseph Webster. 1836.
John Galloway. (1837.)
Isaac Pitman. (1837.)
E. Ventris. (1837.)
Hints on shorthand. 1837.
T. C. Foster. 1838.
Franco Frank. 1838.
S. W. Leonard. 1838.
Eneas Mackenzie. (1838.)
C. P. Newton. 1838.
James Nye. (1838.)
Alfred Peirce. 1838.
A. G. Tyson. 1838.
C. Williams. 1838.
V. D. De Stains. 1839.
L. B. Hanaford. 1839.
R. Waddington. 1839.
British shorthand. 1839.
William Carpenter. 1840.
J. Clarke. (About 1840.)
Robert Dawson. 1840.
Delaine. (About 1840.)
G. Eyre. 1840.
J. Fancutt. 1840.
James Glover. 1840.
Granville. (1840.)
F. Macloughlin. (About 1840.)
Mudie. (About 1840.)
W. and J. Short. (About 1840.)
P. B. Templeton. 1840.
Tyas. 1840.
Improved concise system. 1840.
Minute hand. (About 1840.)
System of shorthand. (About 1840.)
J. H. Buck. 1841.
James Hargreaves. 1841.
Samuel A. Good. 1842.
Charles Saxton. 1842.
John Shoveller. (About 1842.)
Simeon S. Woodhouse. 1842.
Penny system. 1842.
G. Bradley. 1843.
Gurney's system simplified. 1843.
Stephen Pearl Andrews. 1844.
C. Brumby. 1844.
Alexander John Ellis. (1844).
Art of reporting. 1844.
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George Lane. 1888.
E. G. Mann. 1888.
F. L. Meares. (1888.)
F. J. Mulvey. 1888.
E. M. Palmer. 1888.
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For the following authors and w
dates:

Ball, previous to 1690.
Blandemore, previous to 1800.
Blosset, previous to 1727.
Button, previous to 1700.
Ewen, previous to 1758.
Grogan, modern.
Higham, previous to 1758.
Linguistic shorthand, modern.
Lucas, modern.

The system most generally used is Prévost's; Duployé's is also used, but by a very few.

Shorthand is not taught in the public schools. As to the free schools, there are perhaps some where shorthand is taught as a supplementary and optional branch, but no practitioners are known to have been taught in them. Pupils are either self-taught or instructed by members of the profession.

We do not know of any shorthand magazines or stenographic societies. In fact, shorthand is but little used in Belgium, except in the Houses of Parliament and public assemblies.

BRAZIL.—Manuel José Pereira da Silva Velho issued in 1852 a system of stenography and later brought out several other works on this subject. Marti's system is also used; an adaptation of Gabelsberger's system has been issued at Rio de Janeiro by Director Niemeyer, and the system of Taylor has been published by José Nunes Garcia.

The proceedings of the Senate are now reported by contract with the Government and published in the Correio Mercantil, a daily newspaper. For many years the Jornal do Commercio held this contract, but now reports and publishes only the proceedings of the Chamber of Deputies. Five shorthand writers are employed in the Chamber of Deputies, while a single stenographer does the reporting of the Senate.

BULGARIA.—Herr P. Konstantinoff, stenographer and teacher of shorthand in the Classic Gymnasium at Sophia, makes the following statement:

The present position of shorthand in Bulgaria is encouraging. It is only ten years since it was introduced in the principality. Its future is promising and it is in a much more forward state here than in any other neighboring country. During the last two years it has made great progress, having been introduced into practice in more branches of the Government and having been taught in many more educational institutions. From 1879 to 1884 shorthand was taught by Prof. Antoin Bezenšek in the Gymnasium in Sophia and in special shorthand courses conducted in the building of the National Assembly. During 1885 and 1886 the same professor taught a great many students from the Gymnasium in Philippopolis. During 1887 the art was taught in Philippopolis, Sophia, in special courses by the shorthand society in Kazanluk and in a Bulgarian school in Constantinople. At present there are 140 pupils in Philippopolis, 128 in Sophia, and 50 in Kazanluk. The teacher in Philippopolis is Prof. Bezenšek; in Sophia, Herr Konstantinoff, and in Kazanluk, Herr Krustaff.

After the inauguration of the constitution of the principality, the need of shorthand was felt. In consequence the first Bulgarian ministry sent for Prof. A. Bezenšek from Austria to practice and teach it in Bulgaria. He introduced the Gabelsberger shorthand in taking the reports with Mr. Proshek of the first regular National Assembly, held in 1879. In the following year they practiced it in the second assembly. In 1881 the constitution being suspended, shorthand was not practiced in national assemblies, but it was used in many other cases, for instance, in many criminal cases and in copying medical and liberal lectures delivered in Sophia. Many of the proceedings of the Roumelian assemblies were taken in shorthand by Prof. Bezenšek and his pupils. From 1884 to 1890 shorthand in the national assemblies in Sophia has been used exclusively by Bulgarians. At present the shorthand bureau of the national assembly consists of five shorthand writers and five assistants. Shorthand has not been introduced yet into the courts. In addition to the cases mentioned above it has been used in copying addresses delivered in favor of

the union of Bulgaria and Roumelia, of the thousand years' jubilee of the slavic teachers Cyril and Methodii, etc., and on many other occasions. We can enumerate over ten different literary productions on the art published at different times by different authors. Two or three of them are journals, some of the rest are text-books on shorthand, some contain lectures on the subject, and some different accounts relating to shorthand matters. A shorthand association was formed by the enterprise of the National Assembly stenographers during November, 1886. Its object is the extension and perfection of Bulgarian shorthand after the system of Gabelsberger. The association is under the patronage of the ministry of public instruction and has opened special courses for the study of the art and begun the publication of a stenographic journal. In the beginning the association had twelve regular members and one honorary member. On April 13, 1887, the number of its members amounted to eighteen. By March 20, 1888, the revenues of the association were 791 francs and the expenses 743 francs. During the first half of 1889 the members numbered twenty-five. On account, however, of the uncertain condition through which Bulgaria is passing and which is pressing quite harmfully upon social life, the association has suspended its meetings for the present. On its part the Government has done its best to help and encourage the shorthand art.

CANADA.—Shorthand is very largely employed in law, mercantile, and railway offices, and its field is constantly increasing. Pitman's phonography is mainly used.

DENMARK.—Gabelsberger's system was adapted to the Danish language by D. Dessau and published in 1853. Paludan and Dessau, in 1850, began reporting the proceedings of Parliament, each with a corps of eight assistants.

Mr. Dessau, the director of the Parliament Office, writes that his translation of Gabelsberger is now used in the Rigsdagen, and that under his management sixteen stenographic assistants and four revisors are at present engaged in reporting the parliamentary proceedings. During the year of 1888–'89 Dessau gave instruction to seventy-five persons, including five women, at the training school for parliamentary stenographers, conducted at Government expense, and to twenty-seven others at the Naval Officers' School. Instruction in shorthand was also given by other teachers to ninety-five persons, including thirty-nine women, in three private schools. The only shorthand society in Denmark is the Danish Gabelsberger Stenographic Society. No shorthand journals are published.

ENGLAND.—Mr. Gurney-Salter states that the journals of the House of Lords record that in 1699 a shorthand writer was called in to take notes of what took place in a divorce bill. This was followed by a similar proceeding in the case of another bill in 1700. In 1789 the House of Commons during the Warren-Hastings trial called the shorthand writer to the bar and required him to read from his notes the exact words used by Mr. Burke. In 1802 shorthand writers were employed by act of Parliament for recording evidence in election committees and the following year the report of a select committee of the House of Commons stated that this use of shorthand had expedited business and decreased expense.

The proceedings of Parliament have been reported semi-officially and

published in Hansard's Parliamentary Debates, established in 1803 and but recently discontinued. For many years the proceedings for each session filled from five to twelve volumes. The staff consisted of six or seven stenographers, who were regularly employed, and frequently as many more were engaged for additional work.

In 1887 it was stated that nine systems of shorthand were represented in the gallery of the House of Commons, Pitman's, Taylor's, and Gurney's being principally used and in the order specified. Of the official reporters (who report committees, but not proceedings of Parliament itself) all, except one, employed the system of Gurney, and of the shorthand clerks twelve used Gurney's, four Pitman's, and one Taylor's system. Transcripts have been made by shorthand clerks, to whom the stenographer's notes are sent every half hour and who dictate to two longhand writers at the same time, thus producing copy at the rate of about twenty-eight hundred words an hour. These shorthand clerks read with wonderful facility, and often, Mr. Gurney-Angus states, better than the shorthand writers who take the reports.

There are (with possibly one or two exceptions) no official court reporters in England who are sworn as in the United States to take verbatim notes of evidence, etc., and are recognized as court officers, and, while the reporting of trials is common, this is done under instructions of counsel, each contestant in important cases employing a shorthand writer. The judges' notes of evidence constitute the record in cases of appeal, but as a matter of fact stenographers' transcripts are generally accepted by the courts where questions as to testimony submitted arise. Official court stenographers are employed in some of the provinces of Great Britain and to some extent in Scotland, as well as in the United States, but are almost unknown in Europe.

Mr. Isaac Pitman, the inventor of phonography, has furnished the following statement in reference to the use of his system in England:

The conservatism and innate distrust of change, which is inherent in the English character, has for some time militated against a general diffusion of a knowledge of shorthand. Once convinced, however, of the desirability of change, the rapidity with which means are found to meet the altered conditions is scarcely less remarkable than the resistance with which the change was previously met.

At the time (1884) when the former circular of information was compiled, Isaac Pitman's phonography was taught in comparatively few schools beyond the special business colleges or schools of shorthand established in some of the larger towns. Now it can be fairly stated that in no country in the world are the facilities for learning it so widespread or so far-reaching as in Great Britain. From the high-class foundation schools, such as Rugby, Malvern, etc., to the humble board school evening class, where the fees are merely nominal or the tuition possibly free, there is a chain of educational institutions which afford everyone an opportunity of easily and cheaply acquiring a knowledge of this time-saving art.

The Jubilee of Phonography and the Tercentenary of Shorthand, held in the autumn of 1887, had a wonderfully stimulating effect on the study of phonography. The numerous press notices and articles which appeared, by calling public attention to the subject, brought about what might be termed a phonographic revival.

The system in by far the most general use is that of Mr. Isaac Pitman, and from the statistics of reporters it will be seen that it is used by 93 per cent. Were the figures taken on larger numbers it would probably be found that this percentage would be increased to 97 or 98 per cent. A large proportion (4 per cent) of the reporters in the London press agencies were taught Taylor and Gurney before the advent of phonography, while in the provinces the majority of reporters have learned shorthand since the publication of phonography. From a census of reporters using it on the Australian press it appears that the proportion of Pitman writers is 96 per cent.

Phonography is a subject for examination with the following bodies: The Society of Arts, the Lancashire and Cheshire Union of Institutes, the Yorkshire Union of Institutes, etc., and next to bookkeeping forms the favorite study.

Isaac Pitman's system of phonography has been adapted to French, German, Dutch, Spanish, Italian, Welsh, Hindoo, and Malagasy. Including the numerous modifications of it, which may properly be termed Pitmanic systems, it is doing nine-tenths of the reporting, correspondence, etc., of the English-speaking world.

Under the new education code of 1890, shorthand forms one of the fifteen "specific subjects," any two of which can be taken by the scholars in Standards V, VI, VII, in any of the 20,000 board schools scattered over Great Britain. A grant of 4 shillings per head per annum is given, and the study is spread over a period of three years. In practice the time is not so long, as the greater part of the scholars leave before the completion of the three years. Grants are also given in board-school evening classes of 2 shillings per head. These evening classes are a continuation scheme of education for scholars who have left the board-school day classes. The technical instruction act of 1889 provided for instruction in commercial subjects, including shorthand, but very few towns availed themselves of its provisions, as there was no contribution from the Imperial treasury in aid of local effort. Now, however, grants are given in addition to the local sums expended, and Sheffield, one of the first towns to avail itself of the provisions of the technical instruction act, included phonography as a form of instruction required in that district.

Notwithstanding the fact that phonography has not hitherto been assisted by grants, the number of scholars who have taken up the study in board schools is considerable. Statistics show that in London 1,009 boys and 42 girls are being taught Isaac Pitman's shorthand under the board; and in the provinces 2,932 boys and 147 girls; making a total for Great Britain of 4,130. These figures must not be taken as including all that are learning. A teacher in Manchester, where nearly 1,000 board-school children are instructed in this subject, states that the number given in his return is "irrespective of the large number attending the elementary evening classes of the board."

Statistics have been compiled of the numbers learning phonography in Great Britain, but as the figures have been collected for the first time, and no effort has been made to include those receiving private instruction, they are necessarily incomplete. The returns show that 34,739 males and 3,028 females, making a total of 37,767, were under instruction in February, 1890. These students were taught in 1,260 colleges, schools, institutions, and private classes by 875 teachers, 111 of whom teach in London. The number being taught for the whole of last year was 44,730.

As the members of the Phonetic Society, which yearly receives an addition to its number of 4,700 members, correct the exercises of pupils free of charge, very many persons learn privately, and no attempt has been made to include these in the above figures. Were it possible to include all those who are learning phonography there is little doubt that it would very nearly approach the number who buy "The Phonographic Teacher," of which 150,000 copies are purchased every year.

The literature of Isaac Pitman's phonography is extensive, the number of works now published (instruction books and shorthand reading books) being 84. If all that have been issued since the commencement were reckoned, many of which are

out of print, the total would exceed 150. Among the works printed entirely in phonography may be mentioned Æsops Fables, Bacon's Essays, The Bible (lithographed three times and now being reprinted), Blackie's Self-Culture, The Book of Common Prayer, Paul Clifford, John Bunyan, The Church Service, The Ancient Mariner, The Poetical Works of Cowper, John Halifax, Pickwick Papers, A Christmas Carol, Oliver Twist, the Vicar of Wakefield, Gray's Elegy, Little Things of Nature, by L. H. Grindon; Tom Brown's School Days, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow, Rasselas, Macaulay's Biographies, Macaulay's Essays, Milton's Paradise Lost, Scott's Waverly and Ivanhoe, Heaven and its Wonders, by Emanuel Swedenborg; Gulliver's Travels, Thankful Blossom, by Bret Harte; The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, Tales and Sketches, Gleanings from Popular Authors, Leaves from the Note Book of T. A. Reed, Representative British Orations, and numerous smaller works. Of the Phonographic Teacher 1,370,000 have been issued, and of the Manual 650,000. Large quantities of these books go to the colonies and to America, and as Mr. Pitman has recently established a branch of his publishing business in New York, in all probability an increasing number will go to America. Two weekly periodicals are published, the "Phonetic Journal" having a circulation of 25,000; and seven monthly shorthand magazines.

From a census taken of the principal London and provincial papers and news agencies, and based on 607 journalists, Isaac Pitman's system of shorthand was used by 569 of these; that is, by 93 per cent.

Certificates are granted by Mr. Pitman for speed, for theoretical knowledge of the system, and also for a knowledge of the Teacher. These speed certificates, granted through shorthand associations, form a valuable means of gauging a student's knowledge of the art. With a view of stimulating the study of phonography, Mr. Pitman offers annually gold, silver, and bronze medals for proficiency in writing, which are granted through the various phonographic associations. A phonographic society is in course of formation to embrace all the provincial and metropolitan associations, to constitute a central body to promote the interests of phonography and to raise the status of its practitioners.

Mr. Pitman has recently erected some new premises for the production of his phonographic literature. The building covers a quarter of an acre; the number of hands employed is over 50, and the weekly output of phonographic matter weighs about 2 tons.

The Phonetic Journal for June 6, 1891, contains statistics of instruction in phonography for the year 1890. Returns were received from 793 teachers, giving instruction, at the date of the return, in 1,520 schools and classes to 46,428 persons, of whom 4,741 were females. The total number for the year was 55,558, an increase of 11,828 upon the figures of 1889. In the board schools of London 2,551 boys and 920 girls were taught phonography, while in the provinces the students consisted of 5,592 boys and 873 girls, an increase for the year in the schools last mentioned of upward of 150 per cent.

J. M. Sloan states that since the issue of the Sloan-Duployan Instructor in December, 1882, 230,000 have been sold, and that his system is taught in more than 600 schools and colleges.

FINLAND.—Lieut. August Fabritius, of Helsingfors, has furnished the following statement:

The system of Gabelsberger, which was translated into the Swedish language about 1860, was during the course of the next few years adapted to the Finnish by Svan, and since that time stenography has been employed in the parliamentary

service in Swedish, in the two chambers of nobility and cities, and in the two other chambers of the clergy and peasantry both the Swedish and Finnish languages are used. The shorthand notes are transcribed by women, who have acquired great skill in reading shorthand and who use typewriters. The salaries of the parliamentary stenographers range from $260 per month for the chiefs of bureaus to $40 for the youngest apprentices. There are three shorthand associations, one in Helsingfors with about 200 members, one in Åbo and one in Borgå. Instruction in the art has been given in the normal school at Helsingfors and at the Swedish school for boys and girls in the same place. Private instruction has also been given in Björneborg, Borgå, Helsingfors, Tammerfors, Tavastehus, Uleåborg, Wasa, and Åbo. For disseminating the art two monthly journals are published, one in Swedish, called Tidning för Stenografi, and one in Finnish entitled Pikakirjoituslehti. The art is extensively used by students in making notes of lectures delivered by the professors at the University of Helsingfors, which are frequently transcribed on typewriters, lithographed, and offered for sale.

FRANCE.—In 1651 Jacques Cossard published the first method of shorthand in France. Thirty years later Charles Aloysius Ramsay published his Tachéographie in French and Latin. Coulon de Thévenot issued a shorthand method of his own invention in 1778, editions of which were printed in 1779, 1782, 1794, 1802, and 1827. Bertin adapted the English method of Taylor to the French language in 1792, and several editions of his work were printed. Conen de Prépéan and Prévost issued modifications of the Bertin system, the first in 1809, the other in 1828. Several stenographic methods are now used in the French Parliament. The proceedings in each house are reported by a corps of 13 stenographers, 6 revisers, a sous chef, and a chef. The "rouleurs" take notes for two minutes only each, while the "réviseurs" write for fifteen minutes each. L'Institut Sténographique des Deux Mondes is reported to have over 3,000 members and there are 40 other societies devoted to the propagation of the Duployan system. The followers of the Prévost-Delaunay and Grosselin methods have one society each, while there are two societies to disseminate the Aimé-Paris style. Stolze's stenography, adapted by Michaelis, is used to a limited extent. Dr. Weber states that there are 3,000 elementary schools in France in which the method of Duployé is taught. The Association Professionelle des Sténographes Français was organized in 1890, having for its objects the examination and certification of competent stenographers and the general interests of the profession. Monsieur Grosselin, chief of the stenographic service in the Chamber of Deputies, is the president.

M. Joseph Depoin, stenographer of the Chamber of Deputies and president of the Institut Sténographique des Deux Mondes, states that 14 editions of Duployé's system have been issued. The publications of the institute (organized July 18, 1872) number nearly 400 volumes, many languages being represented. M. Duployé has taught shorthand in the Superior Normal School, the Polytechnic School, the Military School of St. Cyr, etc. "Le Sténographe" has been issued every week since its appearance in 1869; it is now called "Le Journal des Sténographes." Since the year mentioned 120 Duployan shorthand magazines have

appeared, the oldest being "La Lumière," formerly "La Dictée" (1871), "Le Progrès" (1876), "La Gazette" (1877), "Le Telephone" (1880), and "L'Eclair" (1886). The Stenographic Institute has issued 3,600 certificates to persons who have proved themselves possessed of a correct knowledge of the art, and 250 diplomas have been granted since 1872 to those who have demonstrated their ability to write 100 words or more per minute.

GERMANY.—The earliest shorthand method published in Germany (1679) was an adaptation of the English system of Shelton. Taylor's shorthand was adapted to the German language by Mosengeil and Horstig in 1796 and 1797 respectively. The two leading systems of stenography to-day are those of Gabelsberger and Stolze. The method of Franz Xavier Gabelsberger, secretary of the Bavarian ministry, was not published until 1834, after it had been practiced for seventeen years. His characters are formed from the ordinary longhand script instead of geometric signs. Henry August Wilhelm Stolze published his system in 1841. It is based upon that of Gabelsberger, and some of the alphabetic characters are the same. The system of Leopold Frederick Arends was first published in 1850, and an improved edition appeared in 1860. The assertion that its basis was the French method of Fayet has been vigorously denied, but there are many points of similarity. Roller's stenography and Lehmann's steno-tachygraphy are modifications of the Arends system. The system of Stolze has been published in three different styles, known as the old, the intermediate, and the new Stolze, while further efforts to alter it have been made by Velten, Merkes, and others. Gabelsberger's stenography has been modified by Faulmann and Schrey. Besides these, many other systems have been printed, those issued by Brauns, Friedrich, Herzog, Kluge, and Vogel being perhaps the most noteworthy.

Dr. Zeibig gives the following figures with reference to Gabelsberger's system for the year ended June 30, 1889: There were at that time 703 societies, with 18,470 regular members, of which 547 societies were in the German Empire, their membership being 13,375. In Austria-Hungary there were 101 societies, having 3,586 regular members; in Switzerland, 9 societies, with 165 members; Italy, 17 societies, with 560 members; Denmark, 1 society, with 52 members; Sweden, 18 societies, with 269 members; Norway, 1 society, with 26 members; Finland, 3 societies, with 246 members; Bulgaria, 1 society, with 21 members; England, 1 society, with 20 members; France, 1 society, with 12 members; United States, 3 societies, with 138 members. The number of persons instructed in Gabelsberger's shorthand during that year was 26,650 in schools, 11,867 out of schools. Of these 19,522 were in the German Empire, 17,414 in Austria-Hungary, 141 in Switzerland, 677 in Italy, 193 in Denmark, 103 in Sweden, 69 in Finland, 13 in Norway, 230 in Bulgaria, 15 in Turkey, 11 in Greece, 10 in France, and 105 in the United States. The Italian school of Gabelsberger-Noë has 19 societies, 17 of which, with 560 members, are in Italy and 2 in Austria.

In this method there have been 841 persons instructed. Eight societies, with 269 regular members, represent the Gabelsberger system as adapted to the Bohemian language, and instruction was given to 6,134 persons, 10 persons being instructed in the method as adapted to the Croatian tongue and 72 to the Polish adaptation. Commissions appointed by the government to examine candidates for teachers of stenography exist in Austria-Hungary, Bavaria, and Saxony. The system of Gabelsberger is used to record the legislative proceedings in Prague, Agram, Buda-Pesth, Sophia, Athens, Copenhagen, Christiania, Stockholm, and Helsingfors. The proceedings of the chambers in Bavaria, Baden, Würtemberg, Hesse, Saxony, Saxe-Weimar, Coburg-Gotha, Alsace-Lorraine, Bremen, and the Austrian Reichsrath are reported by Gabelsberger stenographers, while half of the stenographers in the German Reichstag, as well as in the Hungarian Parliament, use the same method. It is practiced also in taking down the proceedings of the provincial assemblies at Silesia and the Rhine provinces.

Gabelsberger's stenography has been embraced in the official curriculum of the high schools in Saxony since 1873. The members of the Royal Stenographic Institute at Dresden give instruction in shorthand, and for every such course the Government pays them the sum of 210 marks. Up to 1888 certificates of competency to teach the system had been issued by that institute to sixty-six persons.

The first society devoted to the propagation of Gabelsberger's system was organized at Leipsic in 1846. Four hundred and fifty-one societies are included in the Deutscher Gabelsberger Stenographenbund, organized in 1868.

In the Prussian House of Deputies only the system of Stolze is used, and it is said that with one exception all the stenographers in the Upper House are Stolzeans, but in the diets of all the other German States the system of Gabelsberger is practiced. The corps of reporters of the German Reichstag consists of an equal number of Gabelsberger and Stolze writers.

From June 1, 1888, to May 31, 1889, 6,051 persons received instruction in Stolze's stenography. In 1887 the number of shorthand journals published in Germany was 76.

The following figures show the number of societies representing the several methods in Germany, with the membership of each, for the year ended June 30, 1889:

System.	Societies.	Members.
Gabelsberger	703	18,476
Neu-Stolze	383	9,354
Mittel-Stolze	43	1,023
Alt-Stolze	7	200
Arends	93	2,199
Roller	128	2,152
Faulmann	14	1,091
Lehmann tachygraphy	71	1,280
Schrey	43	709

There were 76 societies of college students, with a membership of 1,536, and 12 societies for women, having 308 members; also 3 military societies, with 189 members, which have afforded instruction to 1,656 soldiers.

GREECE.—Joseph Mindler, a German stenographer, adapted Gabelsberger's system to the Greek language in 1856, and was appointed stenographer to the Greek National Council at Athens. A shorthand society was organized by him at Patras in 1863. Blachos published a modification of Mindler's method. As early as 1853 Panos Heliopoulos had published a Greek system of shorthand, but it was very little practiced.

HUNGARY.—Istvan Gati is said by Dr. Zeibig to have practiced shorthand in taking down sermons from 1769 to 1772. His system was published in 1820. The English method of Taylor, translated by Borsos, was the first system used in Hungary. The systems of Gabelsberger and Stolze, adapted by Markovits and Fennyvessy respectively, have the largest following. The first was printed in 1863. Fennyvessy and Konyi, his pupil, were appointed chiefs of the stenographic bureau of Parliament. Gabelsberger's system was introduced into the high schools in 1879 and has been regularly taught since that time.

INDIA.—Shorthand is generally very little used in India. Three stenographers are appointed for service in the Parliament, one by the viceroy and one each by the Bengal and Indian governments.

ITALY.—Mr. Guiseppe Marzorati, chief stenographer in the Chamber of Deputies at Rome, says that stenography *per se* can hardly be said to exist in Italy, as, with the exception of Parliament, no other body makes use of it. It is not used in provincial or communal councils, neither in tribunals, on journals, or by private individuals. It is a very rare occurrence outside of Parliament for more than three or four addresses a year to be stenographically reported. Indeed, there is so little call for reporters that shorthand is very little taught as a branch of education. However, in a few government technical schools the Gabelsberger-Noë system of stenography is taught, but merely as an optional branch. There are also a few stenographic societies which give free instruction in the same system, and they have a good number of pupils. The reports of the Senate are made by the Michela machine; those of the Chamber of Deputies by stenographers. In order to obtain rapid work upon the machine much practice is required, and the question arises whether such a machine is of great use when so much can be done with the pen. There are 12 persons making use of this machine and 2 assistants. The two manage the machine; the others write off the matter in the ordinary way. Then there are 4 revisers and a director in charge. In the Chamber of Deputies the discussions are reported by the Taylor system, which has been adapted to the Italian language by the Amanti system, a modification from the method of Delpino. The stenographic bureau consists of the chief stenographer and 2 assistants, and there is five times as much work in the Cham-

and of 12 stenographers. There are 2 pupil stenographers. The yearly expense amounts to about $12,000. The director, Mr. Steger, has given public instruction in the art each year since 1870, but on account of the few opportunities to use shorthand to pecuniary advantage stenography has up to this time made little progress. The system belongs to the geometric school and was composed by H. L. Tetar van Elven about 1855 and completed by his pupil, Steger, who was the first professional stenographer in the Netherlands, and who published the method in 1867 and in 1888. Mr. Steger has also published a history of shorthand (1873, second edition 1888). Mr. Werst, a pupil of Mr. Steger, teaches shorthand at the commercial school of Amsterdam. Adaptations of the systems of Neu-Stolze by a Mr. Wéry, a German, of that of Isaac Pitman, and of those of Gabelsberger and Stolze combined by Capt. Gondschaal, a German stenographer, have appeared. In 1869 Mr. J. B. Rietstap translated the system of Gabelsberger. In 1881 the Alt Stolze stenography was translated by Reinbold and Brand von Straaten. In 1882 a "Commercial Stenography" was issued by Mr. Dekker.

Only the system of Van Elven-Steger is practiced in the parliament; the other systems have some adherents, but none has yet given practical results. No shorthand journal is published and no shorthand societies, strictly speaking, exist. Shorthand is not used in the assemblies of the States Provincial nor in courts of justice. The reporters for the press usually employ a system of abbreviated longhand and do not prepare verbatim reports.

NORWAY.—Herr Cappelen, chief parliamentary shorthand writer at Christiania, Norway, writes:

We use here the system of Gabelsberger exclusively, which I introduced in 1867. Every year a public course in shorthand, lasting five months, is given free of charge. The class usually consists of from 50 to 60 pupils, but only about 10 take the official examination. The text-book used is one arranged by me and one of my colleagues. Stenography is not taught in schools, except in the Academy of Commerce in Christiania, where the study is optional. Private courses have been given at different times in other cities. Christiania has formed a society of stenographers whose members were or are stenographers of the National Congress (Storthinget). This society has about 25 members, and is the only stenographic association in Norway. No shorthand journal is published, although one has been suggested. The stenographic corps of the Storthinget consists of 3 revisers, 8 stenographers, and 8 assistant stenographers, all of whom use the system of Gabelsberger. The sessions usually last four hours, and one stenographer and his assistant write together for a quarter of an hour at a time, after which the matter is dictated. When the manuscript has been read by the revisers it is sent to the printers, and the following day it is sent to me for revision, appearing one day later in the papers. When the Chamber and the Senate are both in session, the work requires more time because the same corps of stenographers does all the writing.

PORTUGAL.—The first shorthand system published in Portugal was that of Antonio Patrizio Pinto Rodriguez, issued early in the present century, but the art was comparatively little used before 1822, when

Angelo Ramon Marti began to report the proceedings of the Cortes. The system used was that of the elder Marti, and it has continued to be used both in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. Joaquin Machado published an adaptation of Taylor's system, Dulunha e Silva issued a method of his own invention, and Dr. Michaelis adapted the system of Stolze to the Portuguese, but aside from its official use in Parliament, shorthand is very little practiced in Portugal.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—W. H. Crosskill gave instruction during the year 1889–'90 to 22 persons in the Benn Pitman system. The shorthand field is reported to be small, but interest in the art is increasing yearly.

ROUMANIA.—A. Stoenescŭ translated the system of Gabelsberger, published a monthly magazine, and was given charge of reporting the proceedings of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies at Bucharest. An adaptation of the French system of Tondeur is reported to be most largely used.

RUSSIA.—Baron von Wolke issued the first system of stenography in Russia about the end of the last century. Many other systems were afterwards brought out, but none were successful in gaining popularity. In 1864 translations of Gabelsberger were issued by Olchin and also by Tornauw and Zeibig, and a translation of Stolze by Paulson and Messer appeared soon afterward. This was in response to an offer of a reward of 1,500 rubles made by the ministry of education for the best treatise on stenography, which was divided between the two systems of Gabelsberger and Stolze.

SCOTLAND.—Shorthand is extensively taught in board and secondary schools and by shorthand associations. One teacher of phonography in Glasgow is said to give instruction to nearly a thousand persons each year.

In Scotland laws authorizing the employment of stenographers in divorce cases were passed in 1861, and in 1866 their service was authorized in all civil cases in the court of session. By the act of 1868 evidence in cases of jury trials might by consent be reported by a shorthand writer, and the privilege is frequently availed of.

SERVIA.—Milovuc published a translation of Stolze's system into the Servian in 1866, and another was issued by Djordjevic in 1867. In 1876, when a Parliament was formed for the Kingdom of Servia, an official was sent to Austria to learn stenography and adapt it to the Servian. He studied Gabelsberger's system at Vienna, and after his return to Belgrade gave instruction, four of his students being employed as stenographers in the Senate.

SPAIN.—Both the systems of Francisco de Pauli Marti and of Pedro Garriga y Marill have a considerable following in Spain. Marti first brought out an adaptation of the English method of Samuel Taylor (1786) which was published in 1800, and afterwards an improved system, of which editions appeared in 1803, 1813, 1821, and 1824. In 1802

the Government established at Madrid an institution for disseminating the art, and Marti was appointed teacher at a salary of 10,000 pesetas per annum. His first class consisted of 175 persons. Upon his death, in 1827, he was succeeded by Manuel Eugenio Vela. Angelo Ramon Marti adapted his father's system to the Portuguese and Italian languages. Alvarez Guerra issued an adaptation of Taylor's system, in parts, from 1797 to 1813, but his work attracted little attention. A system based on that of Marti was published by Xaramillo in 1811. Vela published Marti's system in 1845, and works on a similar basis were issued by Sotomayor, Zamácola, Villasenor, Lopez, Bas, and others. On Vela's death, in 1853, his chair was taken by Francisco de Paulo Madrazo, who taught the art until 1868; upon his decease the Instituto de San Isidro assumed the task of instruction. Francisco Serra y Ginesta, a pupil of Marti in 1803, who began to teach shorthand in the Junta de Comercio at Barcelona in 1805, issued a modification of his master's method in 1816. He was succeeded as instructor by José Andren. The system of Marti-Serra was propagated by the Sociedad Económica Barcelonesa de Amigos del Pais, and a number of works based upon it have been printed from time to time.

The system of Garriga, which appeared in 1864, is based on the method of Marti-Serra, as was to be expected, Garriga having been a pupil of Andren. The meaning of the alphabetic signs is changed, however, and the system in practice resembles very little that of Marti. A society for the propagation of this style of shorthand was founded, in 1872, under the name of the Corporacion Taquigrafica del Sistema Garriga. José Balari y Jovany, a pupil and friend of Garriga, became instructor for the Diputacion Provincial in the following year.

Gabelsberger's, Stolze's, and Duployé's systems have been adapted to the Spanish language and are used to a limited extent.

There are twelve stenographers in the Senate at Madrid and sixteen in the Congreso de Diputados. The salaries paid vary from 10,000 to 3,000 pesetas per annum.

SWEDEN.—Carl Keventer, of Westervik, writes that shorthand has made great progress in his country, the systems of Gabelsberger and Arends being principally used. The two chambers of Parliament are stenographically reported, thirteen persons being employed in one (all using the system of Gabelsberger) and twenty-one in the other (eighteen of whom use the system of Gabelsberger and three that of Arends). The salary paid each is from 10 to 12 crowns a day, with a gratuity of 200 crowns, making the annual income of each from 1,200 to 1,400 crowns. There are two shorthand associations each in Stockholm, Göteborg, Upsala, Lund, and Örebro; and one at Malmö, Norrköping, Skara, Kalmar, Kristinehamn, Vexiö, Westervik, Östersund, Askensund, Fritsla, Hallsberg, Garpenberg, and Falköping. The total membership in these associations is about six hundred. Two magazines are published—Sleipner, the organ of the Gabelsberger stenography,

and Hermes, the organ for the Arends system. About two thousand four hundred persons were taught shorthand in 1890, the most of whom studied Gabelsberger. Instruction is given in schools in Stockholm, Upsala, Göteborg, Örebro, Vexiö, Landskrona, Kristinehamn, Norrköping, Sundsvall, and Skara.

The proceedings of the Ridderhus were first stenographically reported in 1823 by Silferstolpe and Hjerta, the former of whom, in order to secure a reward from the Government, had adopted the system of Taylor as published in France by Bertin; the latter, a system based on those of Aimé-Paris, Conen de Prépéan and Lichtlein. The system of Stolze has been adapted to the Swedish and published at Stockholm.

SWITZERLAND.—In reference to stenography in Switzerland Mr. Aug. Rouiller-Leuba writes that stenography is not practiced to the same extent there that it is in some other countries, although in this branch Switzerland outranks several European nations. The system promulgated by the Swiss Central Stenographic Society is that of Aimé-Paris (Conen de Prépéan, Aimé-Paris and L. P. Guénin), that of the Abbe Duployé having been thrown aside as being of no particular advantage to the pupil, and indeed being especially inconvenient in many ways. Courses are organized regularily at Neuchâtel, Chaux de Fonds, Locle, St. Imier, Tramelau, Bienne, Noiraigne, Lausanne, Geneva, Cressier, and Bulle. There are also private courses, as to which no reports are received. The instruction given by M. Rouiller-Leuba at the Academy in Neuchâtel is under Government auspices. The question of introducing stenography in the schools is at present under discussion, and a report made by M. Rouiller-Leuba, to the Department of Education of the Canton of Neuchâtel, in regard to this matter, has been favorably received, and it is hoped will eventually cause that branch to be placed on the school programmes.

The stenographic literature of the canton is not very complete. The short method for French stenography, third edition (Petite méthode de Sténographie française, 3me éd.), the stenography of the future (L'Avenir Sténographique), a monthly journal approved and recommended by the department of education, and the manual for reading (Manuel de lecture), which is just going through the press, represent about all there is in the matter of stenographic literature. French stenographic publications are also used in the academy. As for those practicing stenography, they are few in numbers as compared with that guild in the United States. There are few official stenographers, and in commerce and industry the employment of a stenographer is a rare event. There are in French Switzerland a few amateurs, students of the Duployé system, who are scattered throughout the divisions under Catholic domination. These make themselves heard, but in great measure where they have failed in their profession. In German Switzerland several systems are employed, namely: Stolze, Gabelsberger, Faulmann, Arends, and Schrey. Other systems do not seem to be in

use. The literature of the Stolze system seems to be of the greatest importance, both in number of students and in point of practice; and the Stolze school gains many adherents throughout German Switzerland. Societies for this system are numerous, and a total of one thousand members is reported. Two journals for this Stolze system are published: The Swiss Stenographic Journal (Der Schweizer Stenograph) and the illustrated Swiss Comic Journal (Illustriertes schw. Unterhaltungsblatt). The Gabelsberger system publishes only one journal, and the other systems are propagated by means of journals issued in other countries.

Maj. Caspar Suter, stenographer of the Swiss military department, has furnished the following statement:

At the close of 1889 the number of shorthand societies in Switzerland using the system of Stolze was 24, with 823 members; Gabelsberger, 10, with 205 members; Arends, 3, with 49 members; and Schrey, 5, with 120 members.

The Stolze Stenographic Society, Zürich, was the first stenographical society founded in Switzerland. November 15, the same year, it was followed by the society in Aaran; May, 1858, by that of Berne. The first stenographic society in Switzerland which adopted the Gabelsberger system was founded in Zürich, 1863, but it consisted largely of the polytechnical students of Zürich. On June 25, 1871, the Gabelsberger Stenographical Society was established in eastern Switzerland in Wyl, canton St. Gall, which on June 9, 1872, was extended to a Swiss Central Society of the Gabelsberger system.

According to the calculations of the Stolze Stenographical Society in 1884, 2,462 stenographers then living in Switzerland employed ten different systems. Of this number, 1,941 belonged to the new Stolze school, 25 to the old Stolze school, 450 to the Gabelsberger, 27 to the Arends school. The other systems were represented as follows: Adler, 6; Lehmann, 7; Faulman, 2; Pitman, 1; Duployé, 2; Roller, 1.

Of the above-named 2,462 stenographers, 594 are teachers, 624 students, 132 officials, 466 merchants, 127 trades people, 30 agriculturists, 16 physicians and apothecaries, 14 engineers and geometricians, 29 attorneys, 19 ministers, 9 editors, 26 technical engineers, 52 post telegraph and railroad officials, 44 printers and lithographers, 12 workmen in manufactories, 165 scholars of the Secunda, and finally 2 professional stenographers.

Stenography has not yet been introduced in the higher educational institutions of the French and Italian districts of Switzerland. In the cantonal school at Prantrut a trial was evidently made in 1878, but this course of study was soon dropped on account of "insufficient interest and perseverance of the pupils."

The German portion of Switzerland presents more satisfactory figures, as follows: 29 schools with 5,800 pupils, 1,560 becoming experts.

From 1859 to 1876 about 4,250 persons received instruction in Switzerland in the Stolze system, and from 1872 to 1889 about 2,380 persons in the system of Gabelsberger. In Switzerland the use of stenography for transcribing purposes, was introduced in the beginning of this century. As some of the earliest instances when stenography was applied in Switzerland are cited the speeches which were taken down in the Senate and the great council at the end of the year 1798, by the renowned statesman and writer Zschakki. Also the celebrated sermons of the Zurich Chorherr, Conrad Orelli, who died 1826, were taken verbatim. Rev. Jaggi made use of stenography in 1835 for the discussions of the Berner Great Council. Prof. Einecken from 1830 to 1840 made use of stenography in the following instances: For several discussions of the great council in Luzern and for discussions of the same jurisdiction in the session of September 9, 1842, in which the important question was dis-

cussed of the call of the Jesuits to take charge of the higher educational institutes in Luzern. Stenography was further practiced by the State counsellor of Zurich, Mr. Benz, who reported the discussions of the "Eidgenössische" session in 1832, and during the greater part of the decade 1830 to 1840, the discussions of the Zurich Great Council, for the proprietors of the Neue Zuricher Zeitung.

From 1830 until the present time the discussions of the Berner Great Council have been recorded by a German and a French stenographer, and are published in the "Tagblatt" of the Berner Great Council.

Stenography has also been used in the following instances: In 1844, by Krause in taking down the speeches and the toasts offered during the great shooting club festival at Bâle; in 1862 (after Stolze system) the discussions of the Great Council in Argovie; in 1863, the discussions of the Great Council in Zurich relating to the Cantonal house insurance companies, and, in September and December, 1864, the discussions of the Swiss states council, relating to the commercial treaty with France. In 1868 the discussions of the Constitutional Council were reproduced for the New Zurich paper by 4 stenographers, and in 1870, the discussions of the Swiss Federal Conventions relating to the St. Gotthard railroad contract, and, in 1878, the discussions of the same jurisdiction, relating to the additional subvention of the St. Gotthard railroad enterprise, by five stenographers. Prof. Kollbrunner, from 1871 to 1874 reported the discussions of separate sessions of the Swiss Federal convention for the Thurgavie newspaper. Since 1876 stenography has been in constant use at the Swiss military department for the verbatim rendering of the discussions held at conferences and for copying from dictations of the chiefs at the military department. From 1876 to 1884 thirty-six larger and smaller works, by official commission, were executed by Swiss stenographers of the Gabelsberger system.

Text-books and other works on stenography have been issued in Switzerland to the number of more than a score. Three shorthand journals are now issued, Die Stenogr. Blätter aus der Schweiz, edited by Maj. Casp. Suter, in Berne; Der Stenograph, edited by Bär, a teacher in Zürich; also a journal issued by adherents of the Arends system, which began publication in July, 1890.

In reference to the Duployan system in Switzerland, Denis R. Perrault states that F. P. Bonabry, the president of the Club Sténographique de la Concorde, Fribourg, has taught shorthand for eleven years past to the Young Traders' Association, to the students of the university and others; that stenographers have been employed in the Confederation Parliament for only one year, two of whom report the proceedings in German and one in French, the latter using the Duployan method; also that there are three or four journals devoted to this system issued, the most important being "Le Signal Sténographique," published by Louis Mogeon, at Ouchy.

TURKEY.—Shorthand is very little used in Turkey, and no manual of the art has been published. A stenographic bureau was organized by the Grand Vizier to report the proceedings of the Imperial Ottoman Parliament formed in 1876. Public instruction was given, and Mr. Bontini was appointed president of the parliamentary staff at a salary of 22,000 piasters for the session. The proceedings were published in the official journals, El Djewaïb and the Vâkit. Difficulties were encountered because of the recognition of several languages, and the cost of the stenographic reports was proportionally increased.

VENEZUELA.—Marti's Spanish system was introduced into Venezuela by Chaquel. A reprint of Marti's text-book was issued at Caracas and

a manual was afterwards published by Geronimo A. Blanco. Shorthand is taught in the Colegio de Vargas and graduates report the proceedings of the Congress.

SHORTHAND IN THE UNITED STATES.

Systems of stenography resembling the earliest English methods were used in America almost contemporaneously with their publication, but no text-book was brought out until after the United States had become established as a republic. Gurney's and Taylor's systems were principally used, and the art was taught to a limited extent. At the time of the introduction of phonography Gould's treatises, based on Taylor's stenography, were the best known works on the art. The debates of the First Congress of the United States were reported unofficially by Thomas Lloyd. These were published in 1791 and were followed by reports made by other stenographers and privately printed. Up to 1848 the Congressional Globe published weekly an abstract of debates and such speeches as were furnished by members of Congress. From that time until 1873 the reports were published in the Daily Globe, and since then in the Congressional Record. In 1873 the former arrangements for reporting were changed so as to provide five reporters of the House of Representatives, and the reporting of the Senate is done by contract, the same number of stenographers being employed. All use some modification of phonography.

In 1844 Stephen Pearl Andrews published "The Phonographic Class Book," embodying the principles of Isaac Pitman's system, and the following year in conjunction with Augustus French Boyle began the extensive publication of text-books presenting the same method. Sixteen editions each were printed of the Class Book and the Reader within ten years, and other books designed to conduct the student to verbatim reporting were prepared and published. The issue of this excellent and complete series of text-books was the means of introducing the system to thousands of persons.

In January, 1846, Andrews and Boyle issued the first number of "The American Phonographic Journal," containing eight pages of engraved shorthand, and during that year the "Anglo-Saxon," a weekly newspaper printed in phonetic type and devoted to "the writing and printing reform," began to be issued by the same publishers. As an illustration of the rapid dissemination of the art it may be mentioned that in 1851 there were said to be 6,000 persons who had been taught phonography in Philadelphia.

The introduction of shorthand as a means of expediting business correspondence has taken place within fifteen years, and principally within the past decade, the increased use within five years being very marked. In the majority of the schools in which the art is now taught it has been introduced since 1885.

Statistics of 276 schools and classes in which shorthand was taught in the year 1882, were published in "The teaching, practice, and literature of shorthand," issued as Circular of Information No. 2, 1884, of the U. S. Bureau of Education. According to these figures a grand total of 12,470 persons received instruction during the twelve months specified, of which number 10,197 persons (6,032 males and 2,904 females, the sex of 1,261 being unreported) were taught orally and 2,273 by mail. A subsequent table gave data in reference to the introduction of shorthand in 23 schools and classes in which 264 students were instructed.

To obtain the information contained in the following tables 11,000 circulars have been sent out and a very large personal correspondence conducted. It has been necessary to devote many months in learning, from all available sources, the addresses of teachers of the art and in awaiting their responses, which in the case of voluntary statistics such as these are often received only after personal and repeated requests have been made. The tables show that from July 1, 1889, to June 30, 1890, 57,375 persons received instruction in shorthand. Of this number, 23,325 males and 26,005 females (the sex of 817 being unreported) were taught in schools and classes; 7,228 by mail. Of the students by correspondence 3,744 were males and 3,208 females, the sex of 276 not being stated in the returns.

In the subsequent table statistics are given in reference to 229 schools and classes in which shorthand was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891. The number of persons taught orally was 4,150, which with those instructed by mail, makes a grand total of 4,738. Of the former class 2,474 were males and 1,658 females. The sex of a considerable number was not indicated by the reports sent in.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students.						Total.
					Day.		Evening.		By mail.		
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
	ALABAMA.										
1	Athens	Athens Female College.	Miss Alma Porter	1	0	5	....	....	....	....	5
2	Birmingham	Birmingham Business College.	Edgar C. Wingfield	1	4	6	3	....	....	....	13
3	Livingston	Alabama Normal College for Girls.	Samuel Blinkhorn	1	....	25	3	....	....	....	28
4	Mobile	Private instruction	Miss Mary E. Deasy.	1	2	6	....	....	....	....	8
5	....do	St. Mary's Select School.	Sister of Charity	1	....	50	....	....	....	....	50
6	Montgomery	Private instruction	Fred. S. Ball	1	2	....	....	2	1	....	5
7	....do	....do	O. W. Stebbins	1	....	....	6	....	1	....	7
8	Tuscumbia	Desler Institute	Maggie Rice	1	1	2	....	....	....	....	3
9	....do	High School	Geo. L. Guy	1	19	6	....	....	....	....	25
10	Tuscaloosa	Tuscaloosa Female College.	Miss Dominique	1	....	10	....	....	....	....	10
	ARIZONA.										
11	Phœnix	Private instruction	W. H. Robinson	1	2	2	....	....	....	....	4
	ARKANSAS.										
12	Fort Smith	Fort Smith Commercial College.	Samuel C. Neale	1	14	15	3	4	....	....	36
13	Harrisburg	Private instruction	G. W. Bullinger	1	....	....	....	....	18	2	20
14	Little Rock	Little Rock Commercial College.	M. A. Stone	2	40	28	10	6	....	....	84
15	....do	St. Paul's school of St. Mary's Female Academy.	Srs. M. Paula and M. Antonia.	4	1	10	....	....	....	2	13
	CALIFORNIA.										
16	Eureka	Eureka Academy and Business College.	W. J. McClean	1	18	8	....	....	....	2	28
17	Fresno	Young Men's Christian Association.	Miss Frances M. Robinson.	1	....	....	5	5	....	....	10
18	Irvington	College of Commerce of the Pacific.	Geo. H. Stipp	1	6	4	....	....	....	....	10
19	....do	Washington College	....do	1	3	2	....	....	....	....	5
20	Los Angeles	Longley Institute of Shorthand.	Elias Longley	2	30	20	6	....	1	....	57
21	....do	Los Angeles Business College.	Miss May Hughs	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....
22	....do	Miss Cooper's School.	Miss L. L. Cooper	1	....	....	1	6	....	....	7
23	....do	Woodbury's Business College.	Mrs. S. F. Stevenson.	3	35	113	....	....	....	....	148
24	Oakland	Depue & Aydelotte's Business College.	Miss Genevieve White.	2	7	22	....	....	....	....	29
25	....do	Oakland Business College.	Katie Pfluger	1	8	17	1	....	....	....	26
26	....do	Pacific Press Evening Classes, Pacific Press Publishing Co.	L. A. Phippeny	1	....	....	10	15	....	....	25

[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible] phonography	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible] phonography	Remington	[illegible]	[illegible]	
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Remington	[illegible]	[illegible]	
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Benn Pitman's phonography	Hammond	[illegible]	[illegible]	
[illegible]		[illegible]	[illegible] and Isaac Pitman's phonography	Remington	[illegible]	[illegible]	
[illegible]		[illegible]	[illegible] phonography	Remington	[illegible]	[illegible]	
Jan.	[illegible] 188	[illegible]	[illegible]	Remington [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	
188 [illegible]		2	Benn Pitman's phonography		[illegible]	[illegible]	
Sept.	188		do	Remington and [illegible] Smith	[illegible] months	[illegible]	
Sept.	1887	2	do	Remington	[illegible] months	[illegible]	
Aug.	188	21	Lindsley's takigraphy	[illegible] Remington [illegible]	[illegible] months	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan.	[illegible] 188	10	Benn Pitman's phonography	Caligraph	[illegible] months	[illegible]	[illegible]
Aug.	[illegible] 188	10	Scott Browne's phonography modified	Remington and Caligraph	[illegible] months	[illegible]	[illegible]
do		3	do	Remington and Caligraph	10 months	[illegible]	[illegible]
1887			Longley's phonography.	Remington and Yost [illegible]	6 months	[illegible]	[illegible]
About 1887			Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington [illegible]	6 months	[illegible]	[illegible]
Dec.	[illegible] 188	7	Longley's phonography	Remington	[illegible] months	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept.	188	238	Cross's shorthand	Remington (6)	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Aug.	1887	140	do	Remington, Caligraph, and Smith	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
May	1 188	25	Isaac Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
June.	188		Pernin's shorthand.	Remington	[illegible]		[illegible]

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	CALIFORNIA—continued.										
27	Oakland	Private instruction	L. F. Cockroft	1	5	7					12
28	....do	St. Mary's College	Christian Brother	1	35						35
29	Pomona	Private instruction	Emma K. Guild	1	2	4					6
30	Sacramento	Bainbridge Business College, 1017 J street.	Miss E. M. Stockmann.	2	6	26	3	1			36
31	....do	Moynahan's Business College.	J. D. Moynahan	1	10	20	5	7			42
32	Sanders	Private instruction	W. A. Sanders	1	6	6					12
33	San Francisco	Eames School of Light-line Shorthand, Barnard's Business College.	Roscoe L. Eames	2	18	43	29	6			96
34	....do	Benn Pitman Shorthand Parlors.	Jas. Robson	1			4	3			7
35	....do	Commercial High School (school department of San Francisco), Towell street.	Mary T. Conway and Leila Richards.	2	130	156					286
36	....do	Heald's Business College.	Harry W. Cadman	3							*260
37	....do	Shorthand and Typewriting Exchange, 320 Sansome street, private instruction.	G. H. Hawes	1	1	3					4
38	....do	Remington Typewriter Agency, 3 and 5 Front street.	Advanced scholars		*1	*25					26
39	....do	San Francisco Business College.	Kathreen L. Miller.	1	60	130	30	20			240
40	....do	San Francisco Shorthand and Typewriting Institute.	Miss L. Dougherty	2							13
41	....do	Stenographic Institute.	E. R. Ayres	2	14	62					76
42	....do	Young Men's Christian Association, twentieth street branch.	Ebenezer Knowlton.	1			20				20
43	....do	Pacific Shorthand Institute. Socratic School of Science.	Geo. H. Stipp	2	10	24			10	8	52
44	....do		S. S. Rizer	1							
45	Santa Cruz	Gardner's Shorthand and Typewriting Institute, Chesnutwood's Business College.	W. M. Gardner	1	18	13					31
46	Santa Rosa	Santa Rosa Business College.	M. E. Rigby	1	23	17					40
47	Stockton	School of Stenography, Stockton Business College.	F. E. Cook	1	20	45					65
48	Woodland	Woodland Business College.	N. B. Osborne	4	7	7	1				15
49	Yreka	Yreka Business College.	J. S. Osborne	1	6	2	2				10

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1884	12	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph	50 lessons		$1.25 per lesson	27
Aug. 20, 1889	30	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (9)	3 years	42	Free	28
Mar. 15, 1890	6	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1)	3 months		$25	29
Oct. 3, 1887	108	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3), Caligraph (3).	6 months	52	$50 for 6 months	30
May, 1887	100	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	6 months	52	$50	31
1878	*100	Benn Pitman's phonography.					32
Jan., 1884	163	Eames's shorthand.	Remington (3)	4 to 8 mos.		$10 per month	33
June, 1888	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 to 8 mos.	52	$7 per month	34
Jan., 1886	*1,000	Cross's shorthand	Remington (15), Smith Premier (20).	2 years	42		35
1882		do	Remington (7), Caligraph (7), Yost (4), Smith Premier (1).		52	$65 for 6 months	36
		Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (3)			$1.50 per lesson	37
1885	*200	Stenograph	Remington (6)	Average 4 months.	50	Shorthand, $25; typewriting, $10.	38
Oct., 1888		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost (10).	6 to 12 mos	50	$12.50 per month	39
Apr. 1, 1890	13	do	Remington (2)	6 months	42	$50	40
Aug., 1889	76	do	Remington (3) and Yost.	5 months	52	$10 per month	41
Oct., 1889	20	Marsh's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	44 weeks	22	Membership in association.	42
1888		Scott-Browne's phonography, modified.	Remington (2)	4 to 6 mos.	52	$10 per month	43
1879		Longley's phonography.		30 lessons		$25	44
May 27, 1889	40	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)	6 months	52	$42 for 6 months	45
July 27, 1888	50	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	6 to 8 mos.	40	$50 per year	46
1884	400	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3), Caligraph (3).	6 months	52	$75 per year	47
Feb., 1887	45	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (2), Yost (1).	10 months.	40	$60	48
Mar. 17, 1890	10	Longley's phonography.	Yost (1)	6 and 12 months.	48	$10 per month; $35 per course.	49

Statistics of instruction in shorthan

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Num Day. Male.	Female.
	CALIFORNIA—continued.					
27	Oakland	Private instruction	L. F. Cockroft	1	5	7
28	do	St. Mary's College	Christian Brother	1	35	....
29	Pomona	Private instruction	Emma K. Guild	1	2	4
30	Sacramento	Bainbridge Business College, 1017 J street.	Miss E. M. Stockmann.	2	6	26
31	do	Moynahan's Business College.	J. D. Moynahan	1	10	20
32	Sanders	Private instruction	W. A. Sanders	1	6	6
33	San Francisco	Eames School of Light-line Shorthand, Barnard's Business College.	Roscoe L. Eames	2	18	43
34	do	Benn Pitman Shorthand Parlors.	Jas. Robson	1	....	....
35	do	Commercial High School (school department of San Francisco), Towell street.	Mary T. Conway and Leila Richards.	2	130	156
36	do	Heald's Business College.	Harry W. Cadman	3	....	....
37	do	Shorthand and Typewriting Exchange, 320 Sansome street, private instruction.	G. H. Hawes	1	1	3
38	do	Remington Typewriter Agency, 3 and 5 Front street.	Advanced scholars	...	*1	*25
39	do	San Francisco Business College.	Kathreen L. Miller.	1	60	130
40	do	San Francisco Shorthand and Typewriting Institute.	Miss L. Dougherty	2	....	....
41	do	Stenographic Institute.	E. R. Ayres	2	14	62
42	do	Young Men's Christian Association, twentieth street branch.	Ebenezer Knowlton.	1	....	....
43	do	Pacific Shorthand Institute, Socratic School of Science.	Geo. H. Stipp	2	10	24
44	do	.....	S. S. Rizer	1	....	....
45	Santa Cruz	Gardner's Shorthand and Typewriting Institute, Chesnutwood's Business College.	W. M. Gardner	1	18	13
46	Santa Rosa	Santa Rosa Business College.	M. E. Rigby	1	23	17
47	Stockton	School of Stenography, Stockton Business College.	F. E. Cook	1	20	45
48	Woodland	Woodland Business College.	N. B. Osborne	4	7	7
49	Yreka	Yreka Business College.	J. S. Osborne	1	6	2

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept. 25, 1888	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	6 months..	....	$10 and $15 per month.	50
Dec., 1887	33	Thornton's phonography.	Caligraph.....	10 months.	42	$5 per month; $24 per year.	51
Aug. 1, 1889	70	Graham's phonography.	Remington; Caligraph (5).	6 months..	52	$50 for 6 months ..	52
Dec., 1887	168	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2). Caligraph (4), Smith Premier (2), Hammond (1).	3 to 5 mos.	40	$45.....	53
1888.....	350	....do	Remington, Caligraph, and Smith Premier; total, 10.	5 months..	52	$50.....	54
Sept. 1, 1889	190	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (7), Remington (5), Yost (1).	6 months..	52	$50 day and $40 night, 6 months; or $10 per month.	55
1885.....	150	Benn Pitman's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Yost (1). Caligraph (1).	6 months..	46	$10 per month	56
.....	*7	Graham's phonography.	Yost.....	6 months..	....	.....	57
June, 1890	7	....do	Remington and Caligraph	.....	....	50 cents per lesson	58
June 1, 1888	21	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	3 months .	....	$12 per term	59
Sept., 1888	20	....do	None	6 or 7 mos.	40	$1 per week.....	60
Mar. 1, 1890	30	Cross's shorthand.	Yost, Smith	10 weeks to 1 year.	....	$30 for 10 weeks ..	61
July 10. 1887	52	Scovil's shorthand	Caligraph (2)	4 to 6 mos.	52	$10 per month.....	62
Oct., 1889	11	Scott-Browne's phonography.	.....	2 years....	40	.....	63
June 23, 1890	9	Cross's shorthand.	Hammond (1), Caligraph (1).	7 to 12 mos.	50	$25 for 10 weeks ..	64
Sept. 2, 1882	200	Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 months..	52	$100	65
Aug. 6, 1887	225	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (10), Remington (2), Yost (1).	6 months to 1 year.	....	$10 (day), $5 (evening), per month.	66
1877.....	100	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph (2)	3 to 9 mos.	*43	$35.....	67
Sept. 3, 1889	34	Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (4).	9 months..	46	$26 for every 12 weeks.	68
Sept., 1888	60	Benn Pitman's phonography modified.	Remington (1) ...	8 months..	36	.....	69
.....	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 to 12 mos.	52	$10 per month	70
1886.....	50	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	71
Nov., 1889	13	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington	6 to 12 mos.	....	.....	72
1882.....	*30	Munson's phonography.	....do	.....	....	$10 for 12 lessons.	73

a manual was afterwards published by Geronimo A. Blanco. Shorthand is taught in the Colegio de Vargas and graduates report the proceedings of the Congress.

SHORTHAND IN THE UNITED STATES.

Systems of stenography resembling the earliest English methods were used in America almost contemporaneously with their publication, but no text-book was brought out until after the United States had become established as a republic. Gurney's and Taylor's systems were principally used, and the art was taught to a limited extent. At the time of the introduction of phonography Gould's treatises, based on Taylor's stenography, were the best known works on the art. The debates of the First Congress of the United States were reported unofficially by Thomas Lloyd. These were published in 1791 and were followed by reports made by other stenographers and privately printed. Up to 1848 the Congressional Globe published weekly an abstract of debates and such speeches as were furnished by members of Congress. From that time until 1873 the reports were published in the Daily Globe, and since then in the Congressional Record. In 1873 the former arrangements for reporting were changed so as to provide five reporters of the House of Representatives, and the reporting of the Senate is done by contract, the same number of stenographers being employed. All use some modification of phonography.

In 1844 Stephen Pearl Andrews published "The Phonographic Class Book," embodying the principles of Isaac Pitman's system, and the following year in conjunction with Augustus French Boyle began the extensive publication of text-books presenting the same method. Sixteen editions each were printed of the Class Book and the Reader within ten years, and other books designed to conduct the student to verbatim reporting were prepared and published. The issue of this excellent and complete series of text-books was the means of introducing the system to thousands of persons.

In January, 1846, Andrews and Boyle issued the first number of "The American Phonographic Journal," containing eight pages of engraved shorthand, and during that year the "Anglo-Saxon," a weekly newspaper printed in phonetic type and devoted to "the writing and printing reform," began to be issued by the same publishers. As an illustration of the rapid dissemination of the art it may be mentioned that in 1851 there were said to be 6,000 persons who had been taught phonography in Philadelphia.

The introduction of shorthand as a means of expediting business correspondence has taken place within fifteen years, and principally within the past decade, the increased use within five years being very marked. In the majority of the schools in which the art is now taught it has been introduced since 1885.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
.....	8	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	74
1889	10	....do	.....	.....	....	Membership in association.	75
May, 1886	60	Munson's and Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (6)	6 months day; 12 months evening.	....	$10 per month (day). $5 per month (evening).	76
Sept. 1, 1885	100	Cogswell's phonography.	Hammond (2)....	6 to 12 mos.	....	$25 for 3 months ..	77
1885	100	....do	Caligraph (1), Remington (1), Hammond (1).	1 year.....		$60 per year	78
1883	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	4 to 6 mos.	....	$1 per lesson.....	79
1886	*100	Munson's phonography.	Remington (7), Caligraph (1).	6 to 12 mos.	....	$25 for 3 months or $10 per month.	80
Sept., 1887	67	Benn Pitman's phonography modified.	Remington (1), Hammond.	.....	36	$25.....	81
Sept., 1889	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	.....	....	$5 for 25 lessons...	82
Aug. 12, 1889	170	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	National (1), Caligraph (1), Remington.	6 months .	52	$50 for 6 months, including books and stationery.	83
Aug. 1885	71	Benn Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Smith (5).	4 to 6 mos.	48	$45 for course	84
Oct., 1888	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	....	Membership in association ($2).	85
Nov., 1889	12	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph.....	52 evenings	....	50 cents per lesson.	86
1886	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	1 year.....	38	$36 per year.....	87
Dec. 1, 1889	26	Cogswell's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	6 to 8 mos.	52	$10 per month	88
Sept. 1, 1878	1,000 to 1,200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington, Hammond.	3 to 6 mos.	52	$1.25 per lesson ...	89
Oct. 1, 1889	14	....do	Hammond (2)....	6 months..	25	$5 per month.....	90
1884	20	....do	None.....	1 year.....	40	$40 full course....	91
Dec., 1889	6	....do	....do	.....	....	$3 per month; 2 lessons weekly.	92
Oct. 1, 1886	.....	....do	Remington (5), Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	44	$35 for 3 months ..	93
1886	50	....do	Remington (1)...	20 weeks..	40	$10.....	94
1880	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	40	$80 to $100 for school year.	95
Apr. 15, 1890	14	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None.....	6 months..	22	$12 per scholastic year.	96
Dec. 15, 1890	50	....do	.....	8 months..	36	Free.....	97

Statistics of instruction in shorthan

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Num	
					Day.	
					Male.	Female.
	CONNECTICUT—continued.					
74	New Britain	Sister Dora Society	Willard C. Gompf.	1		
75	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	do	1		
76	New Haven	Barnes's Shorthand and Typewriting School.	Theodore Isham	2	33	
77	do	Cargill's Business College.	Miss Susan W. Allen.	1		
78	do	Hogarth's Business University.	Miss Mary E. Holmes.	1	1	
79	do	Private instruction	Chas. H. Meigs	1		
80	do	Yale Business College.	Joseph E. Platt	2	25	
81	New London	New London Business College.	R. A. Brubeck	1		
82	North Lyme	Private instruction	Rev. John G. Ward	1	1	
83	Norwalk	Connecticut Commercial College.	Mrs. Frank H. Ruscoe.	4	29	
84	Norwich	Snell Business College.	A. R. Birchard	2	5	
85	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Geo. E. Parsons	1		
86	Rockville	Private instruction	Paul C. F. Hoffman.	1		
87	Suffield	Connecticut Literary Institution.	Susie E. Pomeroy.			
88	Waterbury	Gaffey's Shorthand School.	Helen L. Mattoon	1	6	
89	do	Private instruction	C. W. Loomis	1		
	DELAWARE.					
90	Clayton	Clayton School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	James G. Longfellow.	1		
91	Smyrna	Smyrna Home School.	Herman Roe	1	3	
92	Wilmington	Private instruction	C. R. Evans	1		
93	do	School of Shorthand and Typewriting; Goldey Wilmington Commercial College.	Miss A. Estella Morley, day sessions; Wm. J. Hume, night sessions.	3	14	3
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA					
94	Washington	Academy of the Holy Cross.	Sisters of the Holy Cross.	1		2
95	do	Arlington Academy	Burton Macafee, A. M., M. D.	2	7	
96	do	Old Standard School of Phonography.	A. S. K. Ray	1	14	

States for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1887	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)	20 weeks	40	$4 per month	1
Jan. 1, 1890	25	McKee's shorthand.	....do	3 months	52	$8 per month	2
Mar., 1890	28	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington		39	No extra charge to day students; night students, $1 for 5 lessons.	3
1886	25	Munson's phonography.	....do	4 to 6 mos.	....	$5 per month	4
Sept., 1889	50	Pernin's shorthand.		6 weeks	39		5
June, 1889	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington		52	50 cents per hour	6
May, 1890	7	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost.	3 months	52	$22.50	7
Sept., 1889	3	....do	Remington	5 months	40	$4 per month	8
Sept. 10, 1889	25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)	20 weeks	48	Free	9
1888	15	Graham's and Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	9 months	36	$50 per course	10
		Longley's phonography.	Remington	6 months		50 cents per lesson.	11
Jan. 2, 1888	67	....do	Remington (4), Caligraph (2), Yost (1).	8 months	52	$40 for course	12
1888	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.		3 months		$25	13
Sept., 1883		....do	Remington and Caligraph (9).	6 months	52	$50 for course	14
Sept. 1, 1887	20	....do	Remington	10 months	40	$50	15
Aug., 1889	26	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1), Yost (1).	6 months	40	$10 per month	16
Jan. 1, 1890	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 months		50 cents per lesson	17
Aug. 1, 1889	10	Scott-Browne's phonography, modified.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	10 months	40	$35 for 5 months	18
....do	5	....do	Remington and Caligraph.	10 months	40	$35 for 5 months; typewriting, $20	19
1885		Longley's phonography.	Remington and Yost (6).	6 months	52	$100 full course, 3 branches.	20
About 1887		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 months		$50 for 6 months	21
Dec. 1, 1889	7	Longley's phonography.	Remington	3 months		$25	22
Sept., 1888	218	Cross's shorthand	Remington (6)	5 to 8 mos.	52	$10 per month	23
Aug., 1887	140	....do	Remington, Caligraph, and Smith.	6 to 12 mos.	52	$50 for 6 months	24
May 1, 1889	35	Isaac Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 to 8 mos.		$8 per month	25
June, 1889		Pernin's shorthand.	Remington	20 lessons			26

Statistics of instruction in shorthan

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Numl Day. Male.	Female.
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—cont'd.					
98	Washington	Private instruction.	Rev. M. Porter Snell.	1		
99	do	St. Aloysius Church.	Miss Mary Allen.	1		
100	do	St. John's College.	Rev. Bro. Joseph	2	34	
101	do	Spencerian Business College.	L. Geneva Wise	2	20	5
102	do	Tanner's Shorthand and Typewriting Bureau.	H. C. Tanner	2	21	3
103	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	E. P. Hanna	2		
104	do	do	Rev. M. Porter Snell.	1		
	FLORIDA.					
105	Jacksonville	Hawley Shorthand and Typewriter School.	W. F. Hawley	1		
106	do	Private instruction	Frank B. Matthews	1	1	
107	White Springs	Florida Normal College and Business Institute.	F. M Saxton	1	17	
	GEORGIA.					
108	Atlanta	Crichton's School of Shorthand.	E. C. Crichton	3		
109	do	Hebrew Orphan's Home.		1	2	
110	do	Moore's Business College.	S. R. Webster	1	10	
111	do	Private instruction	J. L. Driscoll	2	30	1
112	do	do	Carrie Rogers	1	3	
113	do	Walsh's Night School of Shorthand.	Emmett Walsh	2		
114	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	H. M. Nichols	1		
115	Augusta	Osborn's Business College.	J. F. Davis	1		
116	Brunswick	Kirby's School of Stenography and Typewriting.	Geo. W. Kirby, jr.	2	16	4
117	Cartersville	Private instruction	T. M. Walker	1		
118	Columbus	Wynnton College	J. J. Stevens	1	6	
119	Cuthbert	Southwest Georgia Agricultural and Military College.	W. D. Hooper	1	1	1
120	Macon	Clifton School of Stenography and Typewriting.	L. B. Clifton	3	28	43
121	do	Macon public schools	do	2		

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1884	12	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph	50 lessons		$1.25 per lesson	27
Aug. 20, 1889	30	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (9)	3 years	42	Free	28
Mar. 15, 1890	6	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1)	3 months		$25	29
Oct. 3, 1887	108	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3), Caligraph (3).	6 months	52	$50 for 6 months	30
May, 1887	100	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	6 months	52	$50	31
1878	*100	Benn Pitman's phonography.					32
Jan., 1884	163	Eames's shorthand.	Remington (3)	4 to 8 mos.		$10 per month	33
June, 1888	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 to 8 mos.	52	$7 per month	34
Jan., 1886	*1,000	Cross's shorthand	Remington (15), Smith Premier (20).	2 years	42		35
1862		do	Remington (7), Caligraph (7), Yost (4), Smith Premier (1).		52	$65 for 6 months	36
		Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (3)			$1.50 per lesson	37
1885	*200	Stenograph	Remington (6)	Average 4 months	50	Shorthand, $25; typewriting, $10.	38
Oct., 1888		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost (10).	6 to 12 mos	50	$12.50 per month	39
Apr. 1, 1890	13	do	Remington (2)	6 months	42	$50	40
Aug., 1889	76	do	Remington (3) and Yost.	5 months	52	$10 per month	41
Oct., 1889	20	Marsh's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	44 weeks	22	Membership in association.	42
1888		Scott-Browne's phonography, modified.	Remington (2)	4 to 6 mos.	52	$10 per month	43
1879		Longley's phonography.		30 lessons		$25	44
May 27, 1889	40	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)	6 months	52	$42 for 6 months	45
July 27, 1888	50	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	6 to 8 mos.	40	$50 per year	46
1884	400	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3), Caligraph (3).	6 months	52	$75 per year	47
Feb., 1887	45	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (2), Yost (1).	10 months.	40	$60	48
Mar. 17, 1890	10	Longley's phonography.	Yost (1)	6 and 12 months.	48	$10 per month; $35 per course.	49

Statistics of instruction in shorthan

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Num Day. Male.	Female.
	GEORGIA—cont'd.					
122	Rome	Craigmiles' College of Shorthand and Typewriting.	E. L. Craigmiles	1	9	
123	Savannah	Commercial Institute.	C. S. Richmond	2	*15	*1
124	Thomasville	Private instruction	R. R. Downs	1	10	...
125	....do	Thomasville Stenographic School.	A. W. Ball	1	5	1
126	Washington	St. Josepha' Academy.	Sisters of St. Joseph.	3	...	...
127	Waycross	Private instruction	E. H. Reed	1	11	
	IDAHO.					
128	Boise	Capital City Commercial College.	H. G. Healy	1	12	
129	Nampa	Private instruction	Thos. Wilson	1	...	...
	ILLINOIS.					
130	Albion	School of Phonography, Albion Normal University.	D. Nevins	1	6	...
131	Aurora	Aurora Shorthand School.	Miss J. G. Palmer	1	*16	*3
132	....do	School of Eclectic Shorthand and Typewriting, Jennings Seminary.	Miss Frances H. North.	1	9	1
133	....do	Wilson's Evening School.	James Wilson	1	...	...
134	Belleville	Private instruction	D. S. Elliott	1	...	...
135	Bloomington	....do	Clara A. Graves	1	1	
136	Bunker Hill	....do	Rev. Francis H. Zabel, D. D.	1	...	...
137	Cairo	....do	Harlow Davidson	1	*7	*1
138	....do	....do	Mary A. Stewart	1	...	...
139	Cambridge	....do	Mrs. Jas. Keagy	1	5	
140	Canton	Canton Commercial College.	G. W. Miner	1	1	
141	Carbondale	Mrs. Moore's Shorthand Institute.	Mrs. Emma R. Moore.	1	4	
142	....do	Sloan-Duployan Shorthand Institute, Southern Illinois Normal University.	W. O. Melton	2	29	2
143	Carthage	Carthage College	Emily F. Andres	1	2	
144	Chicago (Haymarket Theater Building)	Brown & Holland Shorthand Institute.	Dan Brown	3	44	9
145	Chicago	Bryant and Stratton's Business College.	Chas. T. Platt	4	*50	*20
146	....do	Central College of Eclectic Shorthand.	J. G. Cross	4	31	8
147	....do	Chicago Athenæum	Charles R. Barrett	4	68	19
148	....do	Chicago Business College.	W. T. Adkins	3	30	17
149	....do	Jones' Business College.	Mrs. J. B. Hargrave and C. E. Jones.	4	23	5

the United States

mates are indicated

	students.			
	…en-g.	By mail.		Total.
	Female.	Male.	Female.	
	…	…	…	21
	6	…	…	*50
	…	…	…	10
	4	…	2	23
	…	…	…	12
	…	…	…	18
	…	…	…	6
	7	…	…	*65
	3	…	…	18
	2	…	…	10
	…	…	…	12
	…	…	…	*25
	1	…	2	5
	…	…	…	8
	…	…	…	10
	…	…	…	9
	…	24	10	83
				5
	14	3	12	225
	*30	…	…	*310
4	9	29	17	194
1	38	…	…	[illegible]
5	50	…	…	275
7	43	…	…	137

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—**Continued.**

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.
Mar. 17, 1890	21	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3) …	6 months .	52
1884. ….	1,200	Munson's phonography.	Remington (6 to 8).	.. do . ….	52
June, 1890	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.	………………	………………	…
June 1, 1889	21	… do ……………	Hammond and Remington.	3 months .	52
Sept., 1887	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	……………	….
Aug. 1 1889	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	….do …………	3 months	..
Apr., 1890	……	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (3). Remington (2).	…… ……	…
Jan., 1885	50	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 to 12 mos	.
Mar. 1, 1890	6	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1) .	20 weeks	48
Sept. 1, 1884	200	Cross's shorthand	Remington (4)	4 months	48
1887 ..	…	.. do ………….	Remington (1)	4 months or less	40
Apr. 1888	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.. ….	3 to 6 mos	26
………	……	Bishop's phonography.	…. ……………	1 year 1 lesson per week	….
Oct., 1889	12	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1) . .	3 months	….
Mar., 1885	4	Benn Pitman's phonography	Caligraph (1) …	. .	….
1889 .. …	25	Sloan-Duployan shorthand	Remington (1)	…. ….	
1888 .	24	do . . .	Remington ……	3 months.	…
1889 .	8	Cross's shorthand	Caligraph . .	3 to 5 mos	….
Sept 1889	25	. do ….	Remington (1)	5 months .	48
Sept 1889	100	Sloan Duployan shorthand.	Hammond and Remington.	4 months	…
Sept 10 1888	76	…do ………….	Remington ……	……………	38
Sept. 1889	5	Cross's shorthand	. do …	12 weeks	37
1874	1,500	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (4)	4 to 6 mos	…
… .. .	. .	Graham's phonography.	Remington (50)	6 months	52
Apr., 1885		Cross's shorthand	Remington	. . .. .	52
1873.	(a)	Munson's phonography	Remington (16) Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos	49
1885	425	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (8) Caligraph (9)	6 months	52
June, 1889	.	Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography and stenograph	Remington (8) Caligraph (8).	….. . ..	48

a Several thousand.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	CONNECTICUT—continued.										
74	New Britain	Sister Dora Society	Willard C. Gompf.	1							
75	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	....do	1			10				10
76	New Haven	Barnes's Shorthand and Typewriting School.	Theodore Isham	2	33	49	21	7	8	10	128
77	....do	Cargill's Business College.	Miss Susan W. Allen.	1		10	5	6			21
78	....do	Hogarth's Business University.	Miss Mary E. Holmes.	1	1	19					20
79	....do	Private instruction	Chas. H. Meigs	1			3	1			4
80	....do	Yale Business College.	Joseph E. Platt	2	25	21					46
81	New London	New London Business College.	R. A. Brubeck	1			10	13			23
82	North Lyme	Private instruction	Rev. John G. Ward	1		5				2	8
83	Norwalk	Connecticut Commercial College.	Mrs. Frank H. Ruscoe.	4	29	34	58	49			170
84	Norwich	Snell Business College.	A. R. Birchard	2	5	21	2	4		1	33
85	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Geo. E. Parsons	1			12				12
86	Rockville	Private instruction	Paul C. F. Hoffman.	1			12				12
87	Suffield	Connecticut Literary Institution.	Susie E. Pomeroy								10
88	Waterbury	Gaffey's Shorthand School.	Helen L. Mattoon		6	20	4	7	17	10	64
89	....do	Private instruction	C. W. Loomis	1			25	35	*275	*175	*510
	DELAWARE.										
90	Clayton	Clayton School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	James G. Longfellow.	1			14		2		16
91	Smyrna	Smyrna Home School.	Herman Roe	1	3	3					6
92	Wilmington	Private instruction	C. R. Evans	1			4	2			6
93	....do	School of Shorthand and Typewriting; Goldey Wilmington Commercial College.	Miss A. Estella Morley, day sessions; Wm. J. Hume, night sessions.	3	4	34	16	9			73
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.										
94	Washington	Academy of the Holy Cross.	Sisters of the Holy Cross.	1		20					20
95	....do	Arlington Academy	Burton Macafee, A. M., M. D.	2	7						7
96	....do	Old Standard School of Phonography; Howard University (temporarily).	A. S. K. Ray	1	14						14
97	....do	Private instruction for High School; high-school students.	C. A. Davis	1	25	25					50

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
.....	8	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	74
1889	10	....do	.....	.....	....	Membership in association.	75
May, 1886	60	Munson's and Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (6)	6 months day; 12 months evening.	....	$10 per month (day). $5 per month (evening).	76
Sept. 1, 1885	100	Cogswell's phonography.	Hammond (2)....	6 to 12 mos.	....	$25 for 3 months ..	77
1885	100	....do	Caligraph (1), Remington (1), Hammond (1).	1 year.....		$60 per year	78
1883	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	4 to 6 mos.	....	$1 per lesson.....	79
1886	*100	Munson's phonography.	Remington (7), Caligraph (1).	6 to 12 mos.	....	$25 for 3 months or $10 per month.	80
Sept., 1887	67	Benn Pitman's phonography modified.	Remington (1), Hammond.	.....	36	$25.....	81
Sept., 1889	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	.....	....	$5 for 25 lessons...	82
Aug. 12, 1889	170	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	National (1), Caligraph (1), Remington.	6 months .	52	$50 for 6 months, including books and stationery.	83
Aug. 1885	71	Benn Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Smith (5).	4 to 6 mos.	48	$45 for course	84
Oct., 1888	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	....	Membership in association ($2).	85
Nov., 1889	12	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph.....	52 evenings	....	50 cents per lesson.	86
1886	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	1 year.....	38	$36 per year.....	87
Dec. 1, 1889	26	Cogswell's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	6 to 8 mos.	52	$10 per month	88
Sept. 1, 1878	1,000 to 1,200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington, Hammond.	3 to 6 mos.	52	$1.25 per lesson ...	89
Oct. 1, 1889	14	....do	Hammond (2)....	6 months..	25	$5 per month.....	90
1884	20	....do	None.....	1 year.....	40	$40 full course....	91
Dec., 1889	6	....do	....do	.....	....	$3 per month; 2 lessons weekly.	92
Oct. 1, 1886	.....	....do	Remington (5), Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	44	$35 for 3 months ..	93
1886	50	....do	Remington (1)...	20 weeks..	40	$10.....	94
1880	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	40	$80 to $100 for school year.	95
Apr. 15, 1890	14	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None.....	6 months..	22	$12 per scholastic year.	96
Dec. 15, 1890	50	....do	.....	8 months..	36	Free.....	97

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—cont'd.										
98	Washington	Private instruction.	Rev. M. Porter Snell.	1			3	1	2	2	7
99	....do	St. Aloysius Church.	Miss Mary Allen	1							14
100	....do	St. John's College.	Rev. Bro. Joseph	2	34						34
101	....do	Spencerian Business College.	L. Geneva Wise	2	20	54	17	18			109
102	....do	Tanner's Shorthand and Typewriting Bureau.	H. C. Tanner	2	21	30					51
103	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	E. P. Hanna	2			99				99
104	....do	....do	Rev. M. Porter Snell.	1			6				6
	FLORIDA.										
105	Jacksonville	Hawley Shorthand and Typewriter School.	W. F. Hawley	1			9	5			14
106	....do	Private instruction	Frank B. Matthews	1	1			3			4
107	White Springs	Florida Normal College and Business Institute.	F. M Saxton	1	17	3					20
	GEORGIA.										
108	Atlanta	Crichton's School of Shorthand.	E. C. Crichton	3							
109	....do	Hebrew Orphan's Home.		1	2	6					8
110	....do	Moore's Business College.	S. R. Webster	1	10	2					12
111	....do	Private instruction	J. L. Driscoll	2	30	12	15	7			64
112	....do	....do	Carrie Rogers	1	3	8					11
113	....do	Walsh's Night School of Shorthand.	Emmett Walsh	2			* 65		4		69
114	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	H. M. Nichols	1			20				20
115	Augusta	Osborn's Business College.	J. F. Davis	1			19	1			20
116	Brunswick	Kirby's School of Stenography and Typewriting.	Geo. W. Kirby, jr.	2	16	4	16	2	10		52
117	Cartersville	Private instruction	T. M. Walker	1			5				5
118	Columbus	Wynnton College	J. J. Stevens	1	6						6
119	Cuthbert	Southwest Georgia Agricultural and Military College.	W. D. Hooper	1	1	1					3
120	Macon	Clifton School of Stenography and Typewriting.	L. B. Clifton	3	28	43	18		12	4	105
121	....do	Macon public schools	....do	2							40

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued3

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1884 *a*	*a*26	Eames's shorthand				$5 for 10 private or 20 class lessons.	98
Sept., 1889	10	Mulvey's shorthand.	Remington (7)		40	$1 per month	99
1872	360	Graham's phonography.	Smith	3 years	42	No extra charge for shorthand.	100
Dec., 1886	262	Benn Pitman's phonography and the stenograph.	Remington (5), Caligraph (1).	6 to 9 mos.	52	$12 for 3 mos	101
May, 1889	61	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (6)	5 months	52	$10 per month; $25 for 3 months.	102
Oct. 1, 1889	99	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington	2 years	25	Membership in association.	103
1884 *a*	*a* 24	Eames's shorthand.		2 years	25	Membership in association ($6).	104
Feb., 1890	14	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph		52	$5 per term of 12 lessons.	105
Dec., 1889	4	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1). Smith (1).				106
Sept. 3, 1889	20	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1). Caligraph (1).	30 weeks	48	$5 per term of 10 weeks.	107
1887	200 to 300.	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington, and Hammond (9).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$50 for 3 months	108
Jan. 1, 1890	8	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	2 years	40	None	109
Oct., 1889	12	Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months	50	$50	110
	80	Graham's phonography.	Yost (3)			$50 for 60 lessons	111
1889	11	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	4 to 5 mos.		$25 first month, $5 per month afterwards.	112
May, 1889	*77	Munson's phonography.	Remington	4 months	52	$5 per week	113
Nov., 1889	20	Graham's phonography.	None	5 months		Free to members of association.	114
1886	60	Burnz's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months	44	$5 per month	115
Sept. 10, 1888	55	Benn Pitman's, Munson's, and Longley's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1), Premier (1). Yost (2).	3 to 5 mos.	38	Stenographic course, $30; typewriting course, $20.	116
July, 1889	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington			$5 for 10 lessons	117
1890	6	Graham's phonography.		6 months	36		118
Apr., 1890	2	Pitman's phonography.					119
188		Longley's phonography.	Remington (12)	6 to 12 mos.	36	$100 for complete course.	120
Sept., 1889	40	do	Remington		40	Free	121

a These figures refer to Eames's shorthand only.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	GEORGIA—cont'd.										
122	Rome	Craigmiles' College of Shorthand and Typewriting.	E. L. Craigmiles	1	9	3	8	....	....	....	21
123	Savannah	Commercial Institute.	C. S. Richmond	2	*15	*15	14	6	....	....	*50
124	Thomasville	Private instruction	R. R. Downs	1	10	....	....	....	....	....	10
125	....do	Thomasville Stenographic School.	A. W. Ball	1	5	10	2	4	....	2	23
126	Washington	St. Josephs' Academy.	Sisters of St. Joseph.	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....
127	Waycross	Private instruction	E. H. Reed	1	11	1	....	....	....	....	12
	IDAHO.										
128	Boise	Capital City Commercial College.	H. G. Healy	1	12	6	....	....	....	....	18
129	Nampa	Private instruction	Thos. Wilson	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....
	ILLINOIS.										
130	Albion	School of Phonography, Albion Normal University.	D. Nevius	1	6	....	....	....	....	....	6
131	Aurora	Aurora Shorthand School.	Miss J. G. Palmer	1	*16	*34	8	7	....	....	*65
132	....do	School of Eclectic Shorthand and Typewriting, Jennings Seminary.	Miss Frances H. North.	1	9	11	....	....	....	....	.....
133	....do	Wilson's Evening School.	James Wilson	1	....	....	15	3	....	....	18
134	Belleville	Private instruction	D. S. Elliott	1	....	....	8	2	....	....	10
135	Bloomington	....do	Clara A. Graves	1	1	8	3	....	....	....	12
136	Bunker Hill	....do	Rev. Francis H. Zabel, D. D.	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....
137	Cairo	....do	Harlow Davidson	1	*7	*18	....	....	....	....	*25
138	....do	....do	Mary A. Stewart	1	....	....	2	1	....	2	5
139	Cambridge	....do	Mrs. Jas. Keagy	1	5	3	....	....	....	....	8
140	Canton	Canton Commercial College.	G. W. Miner	1	1	9	....	....	....	....	10
141	Carbondale	Mrs. Moore's Shorthand Institute.	Mrs. Emma R. Moore.	1	4	5	....	....	....	....	9
142	....do	Sloan-Duployan Shorthand Institute, Southern Illinois Normal University	W. O. Melton	2	29	20	....	....	24	10	83
143	Carthage	Carthage College	Emily F. Andres	1	2	3	....	....	....	....	5
144	Chicago (Haymarket Theater Building.)	Brown & Holland Shorthand Institute.	Dan Brown	3	44	96	56	14	3	12	225
145	Chicago	Bryant and Stratton's Business College.	Chas. T. Platt	4	*50	*200	*30	*30	....	....	*310
146	....do	Central College of Eclectic Shorthand.	J. G. Cross	4	31	84	24	9	29	17	194
147	....do	Chicago Athenæum	Charles R. Barrett	4	68	193	21	38	....	....	320
148	....do	Chicago Business College.	W. T. Adkins	3	30	170	25	50	....	....	275
149	....do	Jones' Business College.	Mrs. J. B. Hargrave and C. E. Jones.	4	23	54	17	43	....	....	137

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Mar. 17, 1890	21	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)	6 months	52	$12 per month	122
1884	*1,200	Munson's phonography.	Remington (6 to 8).	do	52	$30 per quarter for day; $25 for night lessons.	123
June, 1890	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.				Free	124
June 1, 1889	21	do	Hammond and Remington.	3 months	52	$5 per month	125
Sept., 1887	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington			$1 per month	126
Aug. 1, 1889	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	3 months		$20 for full course.	127
Apr., 1890		Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (3). Remington (2).			$12	128
Jan., 1885	50	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington.	6 to 12 mos.		$50	129
Mar. 1, 1890	6	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1)	20 weeks	48	80 cents a week	130
Sept. 1, 1884	200	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (4)	4 months	48	$40 for 4 months	131
1887		do	Remington (1)	4 months or less.	40	$36.50 for course	132
Apr., 1888	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.		3 to 6 mos.	26	$15 for 3 months	133
		Bishop's phonography.		1 year, 1 lesson per week.		50 cents per lesson.	134
Oct., 1889	12	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1)	3 months		$25 for 3 months	135
Mar., 1885	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)				136
1889	*25	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Remington (1)				137
1888	24	do	Remington	3 months		$20 for course	138
1889	8	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph	3 to 5 mos.		$30 in class	139
Sept., 1889	25	do	Remington (1)	5 months	48	$25	140
Sept., 1889	*100	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Hammond and Remington.	4 months		do	141
Sept. 10, 1888	76	do	Remington		38	$30 per term of 3 months.	142
Sept., 1889	5	Cross's shorthand.	do	12 weeks	37	$30 for course	143
1874	4,500	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (4)	4 to 6 mos.		$55 for 6 months, or $12 per month.	144
		Graham's phonography.	Remington (50)	6 months	52	$65 for 6 months	145
Apr., 1885		Cross's shorthand.	Remington		52	$60 for scholarship, $25 per month.	146
1873	(a)	Munson's phonography.	Remington (16), Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	49	$90 a year	147
1885	425	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (8), Caligraph (9).	6 months	52	$50 for 6 months	148
June, 1889		Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography and stenograph.	Remington (8), Caligraph (8).		48	$58 for 24 weeks	149

a Several thousand.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

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	ILLINOIS—cont'd.										
150	Chicago	Kimball's Training School.	D. Kimball	1	16	52	17	2			87
151	....do	Metropolitan Business College.	James Russell Price.	3	52	606	16	20			694
152	....do	Mrs. Coleson's Shorthand School, McVicker's Theater Building.	Mrs. A. M. L. Coleson.	3	6	244	15	35	3	22	325
153	....do	Nelson's Business College.	Miss Amy Scranton.	1	4	1					5
154	....do	Pitman & Munson's Shorthand School.	W. A. Marr	1					30	10	40
155	....do	Private instruction	Geo. W. Emery	1	100						100
156	....do	Private instruction	Mrs. A. F. Rodgers	2	36	61	21	84			202
157	....do	South Side Shorthand and Typewriting.	Miss Laura B. Cristman.	1		110		40			150
158	....do	St. Patrick's Commercial Academy.	Brother Baldwin	4	125						125
159	....do	West Side Business College.	M. G. Kimmel	1	20	100	10	15			145
160	....do	Young Men's Christian Association (Madison Street Department).	Dan Brown	1			*50				50
161	Decatur	Decatur Business College.	Miss Minnie Van Horn.	1	11	44	3	4			62
162	Dixon	Dixon Business University.	C. A. Steinman	3	59	49	3	2	*75	*75	*263
163	....do	Northern Illinois College of Shorthand and Typewriting. Northern Illinois Normal School.	A. H. Beaver	2	24	36			10	5	75
164	Elgin	Private instruction	Emma Cole	1				3			3
165	....do	Northern Hospital. Private instruction.	William C. Pike	1	5						5
166	Enfield	Southern Illinois College.	J. L. Hughey	2	6	7					13
167	Englewood	Mrs. Judd's Shorthand School.	Mrs. F. F. Judd	1		15	5	8			28
168	Freeport	School of Shorthand, Freeport College of Commerce.	A. G. Matter	2	2	10					12
169	Galesburg	Business College	J. G. Cross	2							12
170	Jacksonville	Jacksonville Business College.	Mrs. Elizabeth Askew Davis.	2	24	41					65
171	Joliet	Joliet Business College and Shorthand Institute.	H. Russell	2	25	50					75
172	....do	Private instruction	Geo. Hingston	1	3	8					11
173	....do	Squier's Business College.	L. H. Squier	2	42	65	14	6	53	29	209
174	....do	Young Mens' Christian Association.	Geo. Hingston	1			10				10
175	Kinmundy	Rutherford's Shorthand Institute.	Geo. W. Rutherford.	2	11	4					15
176	La Salle	Private instruction	Geo. W. Patterson.	1			12	7	1		20

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept. 1, 1884	387	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (4), Caligraph (3), Hammond (1).	2 to 5 mos.	52	$12 per month, $30 for 3 months.	150
1876	3,568	Munson's phonography.	Remington (24), Caligraph (10), Hammond (3), Yost (2).	5 months	52	$100	151
Feb. 12, 1881	2,000	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington (from 12 to 20).	12 to 14 weeks.	52	$25 per month	*152
Oct., 1889	5	do	Remington and Caligraph.	4 to 6 mos.	52	$30 for 4 months	153
May 1, 1888	250	Munson's, Benn Pitman's, and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (2).	3 to 8 mos.	52	50 cents single lesson, $10 per month, mail course $10.	154
1881	100	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos.		$150 to $200	155
Sept. 1, 1887	350	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1), Yost (1), Hammond (1).	3 months	51	$10 per month	156
May, 1889	150	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	5 months	52	$12 per month	157
1883	*700	do	Hammond (3)	3 to 4 years.	40	$1.50, $2, and $3 per month.	158
1878		Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (12).	4 to 6 mos	52	$90 per annum	159
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington		25	Free	160
		do	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).			$30 for 12 weeks; $50 for 24 weeks.	161
Sept. 1, 1882	*500	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (6 to 8).	3 to 5 mos.	50	Shorthand $30; typewriting $15.	162
1881	450	do	Remington and Hammond.	3 to 6 mos.	50	$40 for full course in shorthand and typewriting.	163
Nov., 1889	3	Lindsley's tachygraphy.		4 to 6 mos.		50 cents per lesson.	164
July, 1882	37	Benn Pitman's phonography				Voluntary	165
1888	13	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	10 months	40	$6 for 10 months	166
1889		Munson's phonography.	Remington (4)	5 months		$10 per month	167
1888	21	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	6 months	52	$40 for 6 months	168
Apr. 10, 1890	12	Cross's shorthand.		10 lessons		$10	169
1883		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (3), Remington (3).	Until graduation.		$30 for 12 weeks, $50 for 24 weeks.	170
1865	1,000	Graham's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Remington	6 months	50	$60	171
	*20	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)			$25	172
Aug. 14, 1889	127	Cross's shorthand.	Hammond and Remington.	3 to 8 mos.	52	$7 per month	173
		Munson's phonography.	(None)				174
Mar. 1, 1887	30	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington and Crandell.	3 to 5 mos.	40	$6 per month	175
		Cross's shorthand.	Remington				176

Statistics of instruction in shortl

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Nu Da Male.
	INDIANA—cont'd.				
261	Sullivan	Private instruction	A. D. Leach	1	2
262	Terre Haute	The Terre Haute Commercial College.	L. Merrell and K Hopewell.	2	....
263	Summitville	Private instruction	Thad. M. Moore	...	4
264	Valparaiso	Northern Indiana Normal School.	S. P. Corboy and W. S. Norviel.	4	160
265	Veray	Private instruction	Mary A. Robenstein.	1	....
	INDIAN TERRITORY.				
266	Westfield	Union High School	Ira C. Nicholison	1	....
267	Atoka	Atoka Baptist Academy.	F. B. Smith	2	....
268	Edmond	Private instruction	Rev. John H. Aughey.	1	5
269	McAlester, Choctaw Nation.	McAlester Presbyterian Academy.	E. H. Doyle	1	6
	IOWA.				
270	Algona	Northern Iowa Normal School.	Chas. A. Cohenour.	1	8
271	Allison	Private instruction	P. J. Leonard	1	16
272	Burlington	Elliott's Business College.	Mildred Riley	2	....
273	Cedar Rapids	Cedar Rapids Business College.	Miss Maud Seely	1	15
274	Charles City	Private instruction	J. S. Barnhart	1	....
275	Clinton	Clinton Business College.	F. E. Hayes	2	30
276	Corning	Private instruction	Ulysses G. Morrow	1	10
277	do	do	T. P. Bray	1	....
278	Council Bluffs	Chautauqua Class, Council Bluffs and Omaha Chautauqua.	Rev. P. S. Davies, Ph. D.	1	6
279	do	Western Iowa College.	W. S. Paulson	2	11
280	do	St. Francis Academy	Sister M. Chionia	2	....
281	Creston	Shorthand Institute, Creston Business College.	Mrs. W. H. Barrett	2	20
282	Davenport	School of Shorthand, Iowa Commercial College.	B. C. Wood	2	28
283	Decorah	Valder Business College and Normal School.	F. M. Webster	3	11
284	Des Moines	Capital City School of Shorthand, Capital City Commercial College	Carrie A. Clarke	3	40

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1889	30	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Remington and Yost.	3 to 4 mos.	50	$40	177
1884	80	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 months	42	$50 full course	178
	7	do	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).			50 cents per lesson.	179
Jan., 1890	17	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph				180
1888	6	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington			$5 for 9 weeks	181
1879		do	Remington and Caligraph.	6 months	42	$12.50 per term	182
1883	14	Kimball's tachygraphy, Graham's phonography, and Pernin's shorthand.		3 months	40	$38 for 3 months	183
1887	60	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1)	8 months	40	$33	184
Sept., 1888	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do		40	$14 for course in phonography and typewriting.	185
Sept., 1889	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.			36	No extra charge for shorthand.	186
1878	*200	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	2 hours daily 4 to 6 months.	52	Class, 2 lessons per week, $3.50 per month; private, 5 lessons per week, $8 per month.	187
Oct., 1889	*25	Cross's shorthand		3 to 4 mos.		$15 for course	188
June 1, 1888		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (4), Caligraph (1).	6 months	42	$30 for 12 weeks; $50 for 24 weeks.	189
Sept. 1, 1887	73	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington		52	75 cents per lesson, $6 per month.	190
Oct. 20, 1888		Graham's, Benn Pitman's, and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Smith's Premier (1); Remington (7).			$20 for 20 lessons	191
Sept., 1888	50	Graham's phonography.	Remington (5)	6 months	52	$60	192
		Isaac Pitman's, Benn Pitman's, and Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 to 7 mos.		$10 per month	193
Jan. 20, 1890	60	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (6)	5 months for an amanuensis.	52	$65 for 5 months	194
1882	65	Longley's phonography.	Remington (2)	2 years	42	$20	195
May 3, 1890	11	Cross's shorthand		10 lessons		$10	196
1883	300	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (6), Remington (2).	6 months	52	$40 for 6 months	197
Sept., 1887	23	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (4)	Average 5 months.	52	$10 per month	198
Oct. 16, 1889	13	Graham's phonography.	Remington	50 lessons		$20	199
Sept., 1889	9	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	do	20 weeks	40	$32 for 40 weeks; $16 for 20 weeks.	200
1888		Cross's shorthand	do	5 months		$12	201
		Isaac Pitman's phonography.	do	4 to 6 mos.		$8 per month	202
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (2).	24 to 40 weeks.		$50 for 24 weeks	203

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	ILLINOIS—cont'd.										
204	Sycamore	Private instruction.	J. G. Cross	1							10
205	Tentopolis	St. Joseph's Diocesan College.	Rev. Bro. Leopold Brener.	2	9						9
206	Wenona	Corresponding School of Shorthand.	J. E. W. Morgan	2	1	1	12	6	17	25	62
207	Westfield	Westfield Business College (Westfield College.)	Miss Tressa Maxwell.	1							
208	Wheaton	Wheaton College	Miss Edith Jenks	1	11	5					16
	INDIANA.										
209	Anderson	Anderson Shorthand School.	L. J. Weichmann	1	12	6	1	1			20
210	Angola	Tri-State Normal College.	C. G. Phillips	2	25	15	3	1	1		45
211	Aurora	W. B. Stier's Night School.	W. B. Stier	1			1	5			6
212	Bloomington	Private instruction	Mrs. Annie E. H. Lemon.	1	5	1		1			7
213	Brazil	do	J. D. Strachan	1			2	4			6
214	Columbus	Columbus Normal School and Business Institute.	J. E. Polley	1	23	26	5	5			59
215	do	Private instruction	R. F. Gottschalk	1			6	8			14
216	Covington	Indiana Normal College.	J. G. Evans	1	1	1					*a* 2
217	Crawfordsville	Private instruction	Mattie K. Keeney	4	2	6	1				9
218	do	do	Wm. M. White	1	6	8					14
219	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Wm. M. White	1							
220	Danville	Central Normal College.	A. M. Wagner	2					15	15	30
221	Elkhart	Middleton's Shorthand and Typewriting Institute.	William D. Middleton.	1	15	45					60
222	Evansville	School of Stenography and Typewriting.	Lillian Murfitt	4	8	42	18	4			72
223	Fort Wayne	Cathedral School	Bro. ——	1	20						20
224	do	Fort Wayne High School.	Wilson E. McDermutt.	1	10	7					17
225	do	Gabelsberger Stenographen Verein, Concordia College.	Members of Society.	5	100						100
226	do	McDermutt & Whiteleather's Business College.	Wilson E. McDermutt.	2	15	41	8	12			76
227	Frankfort	Minor's Shorthand College. Minor's Business College.	Mrs. Flora Minor	2	17	19	8	6	12	11	73
228	Greencastle	St. Paul's Academy	Sisters of Providence.			10					10
229	Hope	Normal and Commercial College.	J. W. Beck	1	13	11					24
230	Huntertown	Private instruction	T. F. Frech	1			5	4			9
231	Indianapolis	National Shorthand Academy, National Business College.	L. A. Duthie	2	22	45	17	9			93

a In 1890-91 a class of 4 males and 7 females was taught by Josephine Webb, Benn Pitman system.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
May 21, 1890	10	Cross's shorthand.		10 lessons.		$10	204
Sept. 9, 1887	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	2 years	40	$20 per annum	205
Oct., 1888	67	do	Remington and Odell.	6 months		$15 for 50 lessons by mail; $12 for 50 lessons evening school.	206
Sept., 1888	*10	Cross's shorthand.	None	4 to 6 mos.	38	$5 per month	207
do		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Hammond (1).		39		208
Oct. 1, 1889	20	do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	1 year	52		209
Nov. 12, 1889	153	do	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	7 to 9 mos.	30	$13 per term	210
		do	Remington (1)	6 months	25	$3.50 per month	211
1887	20	do	Caligraph	90 lessons.		$10 for 30 lessons	212
Sept., 1889	6	Graham's phonography.		8 months		$5 per month, for 12 lessons	213
Sept. 1, 1887	150	Benn Pitman's phonography.		20 weeks	48	$8 for 10 weeks	214
Sept., 1888	16	do	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	40 lessons, 3 hours each.	20	$25	215
do	5	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington	5 to 7½ mos.	48	$1 per week, 5 lessons.	216
		Munson's phonography.	Caligraph	6 to 8 mos.		$25 for course	217
		do	Remington	3 months	52	$15	218
Nov., 1889	12	do		20 lessons.		None	219
1880	500	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	5 months	48	$12 for 5 months' course.	220
1888	74	Haven's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	12 weeks	52	$20	221
About 1875		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (2).	6 to 8 mos.	52	$12.50 per month	222
Sept., 1886	40	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)	2 years	40	No extra charge	223
Sept., 1888	31	Munson's phonography.	None	1 year	40	do	224
1885		Gabelsberger's stenography.				Free	225
do	250	do	Caligraph (5)	6 months to 1 year.	46	$35, 6 months; $50, 1 year.	226
do	103	Graham's phonography, principally.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 to 9 mos.	52	$30	227
Sept., 1889	10	Pernin's shorthand.	None		42	No extra charge	228
1889	37	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph	5 to 8 mos.	47	$8 for 10 weeks	229
		Benn Pitman's phonography.		30 lessons.		$5	230
Sept. 9, 1889	67	do	Caligraph, Remington, and Yost.	6 months	52	$30	231

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	INDIANA—cont'd.										
232	Indianapolis	Private instruction	Mrs. May Gable	2	40	135	15	35			225
233	do	School of shorthand, Indianapolis Business University.	E. J. Heeb	2	50	75	20	15			160
234	do	Shorthand school, Koerner's Business College.	S. H. East	1	31	73	7	7			118
235	Kokomo	Private instruction	Jas. B. Covil	1			2	2			4
236	Lafayette	Union Business College.	A. O. Reser	2	12	17					29
237	Lawrenceburg	Private instruction	R. H. Colt	1		2					2
238	Logansport	Hall's Business College.	C. F. Moore and C. L. Dilley.	2	20	13	1	1			35
239	Marion	Marion Normal College.	J. C. Roberts	1	8	4				2	14
240	Mervin	Union Christian College, private class.	J. E. Miller	1	9						9
241	Mitchell	Southern Indiana Normal College	Ada Buckingham	1	*15	*35					*50
242	Mount Vernon	Private instruction	Mrs. Edwin S. Monroe.		2	6					8
243	Moscow	do	C. E. Kinney	1		1	5				6
244	Newcastle	Jesse Bond's Practical Business Institute.	Jesse Bond	1	2	13					15
245	Noblesville	Private instruction	Edward E. Neal	1			3	3			6
246	North Manchester.	North Manchester College.	F. O. Howe	1	10	8	1				19
247	Notre Dame	University of Notre Dame.	Thomas A. Flood.	1	84						84
248	Peru	Private instruction	D. A. Roe	1	1		4	5			10
249	do	do	Hallie L. McNeil	1			6	4			10
250	Portland	do	Frank B. Jaqua	1	6	2					8
251	Richmond	do	Mrs. E. S. Myers	3	6	26	4				36
252	do	do	Mrs. F. M. Scott	1	27	16			15	13	71
253	do	Richmond Business College.	Rev. J. W. Kapp	2	30	50					80
254	do	Richmond School of Phonography.	Sue P. Owen	1	13	37	10				60
255	do	Richmond School of Shorthand and Telegraphy.	Henry H. Grant	1		3					3
256	Ridgeville	Ridgeville College	Rebecca Horn	1	10	15					25
257	Salem	Private instruction	Eugene Hein	1			3				3
258	Shoals	Phonographic Institute.	Rousseau Hightower.	1	3	1	2		1	1	8
259	South Bend	Private instruction	R. H. Hardman	1			2		1		3
260	do	South Bend Commercial College.	W T. Boone	2	15	20					35

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1884	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (7).	6 months	52	$10 per month	232
About 1875	*800	Pitman's, or any leading system.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond (17).	...do	52	$12, 1 month; $50, 6 months.	233
1882	.....	Leading systems of phonography.	Remington (9)	...do	52	$10 per month; $40, 6 months.	234
.....	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	1 to 2 years	....	$25 to $40	235
1883	about 200	....do	Remington (6)	6 months	52	$15 per quarter	236
.....	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington	.....	....	$50 cents per lesson.	237
1885	175	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington (4).	6 months	....	$40 for 6 months	238
Oct., 1889	14	....do	Remington	30 weeks	38	$10 for term of 10 weeks.	239
About 1886	.....	....do	.....	6 months	....	$6 to $10 for 6 months.	240
Oct., 1888	*50	Cross's shorthand	Remington (4)	About 1 year.	47	$46 per year	241
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	3 to 6 mos.	....	$10 per month	242
Jan., 1890	6	....do	.....	About 5 months.	....	50 cents per lesson	243
1886	15	....do	Remington	12 weeks	46	$25	244
Sept., 1887	*20	....do	....do	.....	....	25 cents per hour	245
June, 1889	18	Cross's shorthand	Caligraph	20 to 50 weeks.	50	$15 per course	246
About 1870	Average 75 per year.	Isaac Pitman's, Benn Pitman's, Graham's, Longley's, and Munson's phonography.	Remington (5)	1 year	40	$10 per session of 5 months.	247
Jan., 1888	19	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	....	50 cents per lesson	248
Feb., 1890	10	....do	None	.....	....	25 cents per lesson	249
1887	.....	....do	Remington (3)	6 to 10 months.	....	25 cents per hour	250
Jan. 1, 1884	50	....do	Caligraph and Remington.	4 to 6 mos.	52	$10 per month	251
Apr., 1887	83	....do	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	36	$40	252
1883	120	Barnes's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	6 months	52	$10 per month	253
1885	125	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	52	....do	254
.....	3	....do	.....	.....	52	$10 per mo.; $40 unlimited course.	255
Apr. 2, 1890	25	....do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	30 weeks	50	$10 for 10 weeks	256
.....	.....	....do	.....	6 months	....	$25 for 6 months	257
Feb. 13, 1889	4	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	.....	4 months	....	$4 per month	258
July, 1889	3	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 to 9 mos.	....	$5 per month	259
Jan. 1, 1885	.....	Isaac Pitman's phonography, with supplementary work from all Pitmanic systems.	Remington (4) and Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	....	$40 for course	260

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

Estimates are indicated

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	INDIANA—cont'd.										
261	Sullivan	Private instruction	A. D. Leach	1	2	1					3
262	Terre Haute	The Terre Haute Commercial College.	L. Merrell and K Hopewell.	2							*15
263	Summitville	Private instruction	Thad. M. Moore		4	2					6
264	Valparaiso	Northern Indiana Normal School.	S. P. Corboy and W. S. Norviel.	4	160	132					292
265	Veray	Private instruction	Mary A. Robenstein.	1		2					2
	INDIAN TERRITORY.										
266	Westfield	Union High School	Ira C. Nicholison	1							
267	Atoka	Atoka Baptist Academy.	F. B. Smith	2			2				2
268	Edmond	Private instruction	Rev. John H. Aughey.	1	5	3					8
269	McAlester, Choctaw Nation.	McAlester Presbyterian Academy.	E. H. Doyle	1	6	8					14
	IOWA.										
270	Algona	Northern Iowa Normal School.	Chas. A. Cohenour.	1	8	9					17
271	Allison	Private instruction	P. J. Leonard	1	16	4					20
272	Burlington	Elliott's Business College.	Mildred Riley	2							60
273	Cedar Rapids	Cedar Rapids Business College.	Miss Maud Seely	1	15	34					49
274	Charles City	Private instruction	J. S. Barnhart	1		11					11
275	Clinton	Clinton Business College.	F. E. Hayes	2	30	50	18	12	2	5	117
276	Corning	Private instruction	Ulysses G. Morrow	1	10	2	2	1	10	2	27
277	do	do	T. P. Bray	1			2		2		4
278	Council Bluffs	Chautauqua Class, Council Bluffs and Omaha Chautauqua.	Rev. P. S. Davies, Ph. D.	1	6	4			2		12
279	do	Western Iowa College.	W. S. Paulson	2	11	17	3	5			36
280	do	St. Francis Academy.	Sister M. Chionia	2		25					25
281	Creston	Shorthand Institute, Creston Business College.	Mrs. W. H. Barrett	2	20	36					56
282	Davenport	School of Shorthand, Iowa Commercial College.	B. C. Wood	2	28	76	3	5	2	17	131
283	Decorah	Valder Business College and Normal School.	F. M. Webster	3	11	15					26
284	Des Moines	Capital City School of Shorthand, Capital City Commercial College.	Carrie A. Clarke	3	40	119	6	6	1	2	174

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1884	13	Benn Pitman's and Moran's reporting style.	Caligraph	5 to 6 mos.		$10 for 12 lessons	261
1879		Moran's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (8).	4 to 6 mos.			262
Jan. 1, 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	do		$30 for complete instruction.	263
1874	1,976	do	Remington (22), Caligraph (4).	40 weeks	50	$13 for 10 weeks	264
	15	do		3 months		40 cents per lesson	265
1881	40	do		do			266
Sept., 1887	5	Lindsley's stachygraphy.	Caligraph (1)		36	$4 and $5 per mo.	267
		Benn Pitman's phonography.				$25	268
Sept., 1888	21	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Caligraph (3)	16 weeks	40	$15 per month	269
Sept. 20, 1889	17	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph	6 months	36	$5 for 12 weeks	270
May, 1888	24	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hall	1 year	36	$15	271
		do	Hammond and Caligraph.	6 months		$25 for 3 months	272
Sept., 1886	*250	Graham's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 months	52	$45 for 6 months	273
	16	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hall	Partial course, 24 lessons		$10 for 24 lessons	274
Feb. 9, 1887	350	Munson's phonography.	Remington (9)	6 months	42	$45	275
1886	25	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 to 8 mos.		$20 for course	276
		Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	About 6 months		$25 for course	277
July 2, 1890	12	Lindsley's stachygraphy.	None	3 weeks		$3 per scholar	278
1884	*130	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	4 to 12 mos	48	$1 per week	279
Sept., 1889	25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington			$3 per month	280
Dec., 1888	75	Benn Pitman's phonography; also the stenograph.	Remington (2), Yost (1); Caligraph (1.)	6 to 9 mos.	52	$45	281
May 1, 1884	*800	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (7)	6 months	52	$50 for full course, or $10 per month.	282
July 1, 1887	74	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2)	do	47	$30 for 6 months stenography; $4 per month for typewriting.	283
1884	*500	do	Remington (14)	7 to 12 mos	52	$45 for 6 months; $65 per year.	284

Statistics of instruction in shorthand

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Numb	
					Day.	
					Male.	Female.
	KANSAS—cont'd.					
370	Topeka	Private instruction	Thos. R. Hyatt	1	....	....
371	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	C. H. Nettels	1	....	....
372	Weir City	...do	Rev. B. F. Smith	1	....	....
373	Wellington	Fazel's Shorthand Institute.	C. D. Fazel	1	8	4
374	Wichita	Private instruction	N. J. Waterbury	1	15	5
375	...do	Southwestern Business College.	Miss Emma E. Cowan.	2	50	75
376	...do	Wichita School of Shorthand Writing.	Mrs. Laura E. Sandefur.	2	5	7
377	Wilson	Wilson Private School.	J. W. Howes	1	....	....
378	Winfield and Wellington.	Fazel Bros. Short hand Institute.	John H. Fazel	3	....	....
379	...do	Private instruction	W. G. Tidd	1	....	2
380	Winfield	Southwest Kansas M. E. College.	G. P. Van Wye	2	8	7
	KENTUCKY.					
381	Bowling Green	Potter College	Miss Bettie Thompson.	1	....	21
382	...do	Southern Normal School and Business College.	Devona Gilmore	1	15	5
383	Corinth	Corinth Academy	F. M. Hurst	2	15	11
384	Covington	Covington School of Phonography.	Kate A. Myers	1	7	27
385	Dayton	Private instruction	A. G. Kriedler	1	....	....
386	Hopkinsville	...do	C. H. Dietrich	1	1	4
387	Lexington	Commercial College of Kentucky University.	Miss Georgia Hayes.	2	122	21
388	...do	State Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Miss May E. Millikan.	2	27	11
389	Louisville	Benn Pitman School of Phonography.	Mrs. E. E. Dougherty.	1	....	13
390	...do	Bryant & Stratton Business College.	J. D. Creager	3	63	198
391	...do	Pernin Shorthand Institute.	John L. King	1	21	49
392	...do	Private instruction	H. W. Clarke	1	....	....
393	...do	...do	Miss C. T. Curle	1	5	1
394	...do	...do	C. W. Dorsey	1	....	....
395	...do	St. Xavier's Institute.	Rev. Bro. James	1	23	....
396	Madisonville	National Institute	E. McCulley	1	10	3
397	Maysville	School of Phonography.	Miss Mollie E. Cummings.	1	16	1
398	Millersburg	Millersburg Female College.	Miss Daisy Shettman.	1	....	4
399	Owensboro	Private instruction	T. D. McIntosh	2	15	4

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
June 3, 1889	10	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	3 to 6 mos.		$45 for 6 months; $15 by mail.	285
Sept. 10, 1878		do	Caligraph, Remington, Hammond, and Duplex (10).	6 months	48	$45 for 6 months	286
Sept., 1889	19	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2)	2 years	36		287
March, 1889	34	Benn Pitman's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph (2)	6 months	20	$35	288
1882	200	Longley's phonography.	Remington	do	52	$50	289
	a 25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).	do	(b)	$50	290
1884	100	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Caligraph			$25 for course.	291
1886	*25	Moran's phonography.	Remington (2)	24 weeks	24	Free	292
Sept., 1889	2	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	1 year	36	$7	293
1887	49	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 to 9 mos.	36	$24 for 3 months; $5 for each additional month.	294
June 20, 1889	6	Lindsley's tachygraphy.				$12	295
May, 1885	*200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	4 to 6 mos.		$8	296
Apr., 1888	25	Cross's shorthand	Remington, Hammond, and Hall.	5 months	48	$30	297
Sept. 5, 1889	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Smith.		38	$8 per month	298
		Moran's phonography.	Remington and International.			50 cents per lesson.	299
Mar., 1890		Cross's shorthand.	Remington and Caligraph.	2 months		$45	300
Sept., 1888	7	do	Remington	24 weeks	37	$15 per term	301
Nov. 6, 1888	29	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	5 months	48	$60	302
		Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 months	36	$20	303
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (4), Caligraph (1).	5 to 8 mos.	52	$50	304
Aug., 1888		Moran's phonography.	Remington	3 months to 2 years.	52	$30	305
Oct. 1, 1889	32	Graham's phonography.	do	8 months	50	$40 for 6 months	306
	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	About 6 months.		$5 for 15 lessons	307
1887	10	Benn Pitman's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2)	8 months to 1 year.	36	Free	308
1885		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	6 to 8 mos.	52	$40 for 6 months	309
Dec. 1, 1888	85	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	4½ months.	50	$30 for 5 months	310
		Lindsley's tachygraphy.	World				311
		do					312
		Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 to 9 mos.	36	$12 in class, $20 private lessons, per term.	313

a Yearly average. b Sept. 15 to July 14.

Statistics of instruction in shorthan

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Numl Day. Male.	Day. Female.
	KENTUCKY—con.					
400	Owingsville	Owingsville Normal and Business College.	Miss Julia Marshall.	1	9	
401	Williamsburg	Williamsburg Academy.	Louise M. Morrill	1		
402	Woolsonville	Private instruction	Miss E. Belle Woodson.	1		
	LOUISIANA.					
403	New Orleans	Private instruction	D. H. Buckley	1		
404	do	do	F. C. Debes	1	15	
405	do	do	Rev. Walter Dunstan.	1	4	
406	do	Mercantile shorthand and typewriting office. Private instruction.	A. A. McVally	3	2	2
407	do	Private instruction	Charles Nathan	1	19	3
408	do	do	C. O'Shaughnessy	1		
409	do	do	A. J. Peters	1	6	
410	do	do	A. L. Redden	3	1	
411	do	Soulé Commercial College and Literary Institute.	Miss Carrie McGuigan.		1	
412	do	Yost School of Shorthand.	Dalton Williams	2		
412½	Shreveport	Thatcher Institute and Kate Nelson Seminary; private instruction.	Mrs. Gussie Patrick.	1	16	1
413	Victoria	Victoria School	George Coverdale	1	15	
414	Westlake	Private instruction	W. H. Managan	1		
	MAINE.					
415	Auburn	Androscoggin Business College.	W. G. Haskell	2		
416	do	Home Shorthand Institute.	G. D. Emery	2		
417	do	Private instruction	Maj. J. D. Pulsifer	1	1	1
418	Augusta	Dirigo Business College.	R. B. Capen	2	4	1
419	do	do	Miss Amelia M. Gould.	1	1	
420	Bangor	Shorthand and Typewriting School; Maine Central Institute.	Miss A. E. Margesson.	1	5	2
421	Biddeford	Private instruction	R. W. E. Milliken	1		
422	Brewer	East Maine Conference Seminary.	John F. Knowlton	1	6	

a Some of these pupils were in Saco, Me.

the United States

:imates are indicated

of students.				
ven-ng.		By mail.		Total.
	Female.	Male.	Female.	
				14
3				2
				1
8	2	2	1	12
8	4			[illegible]
	6			15
2	1			[illegible]
				55
30	3		1	34
6				12
7	20		2	[illegible]
				64
		4	6	10
10		2	2	[illegible]
		2		[illegible]
7	1			[illegible]
				[illegible]
		3		[illegible]
1	1	3		[illegible]
9		4	2	[illegible]
4				[illegible]
25	4	3		[illegible]
	4	3		[illegible]
7				

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—**Continued.**

by an asterisk (*).'

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.
Sept., 1889	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)	3 years	40
Apr., 1890	3	do			
Nov. 15, 1889		do	Caligraph		
1882	300	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	6 to 12 mos.	
Jan. 1, 1888	60	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	8 to 12 mos	5
1885	50	do	do	10 months	5
Dec. 1 1889	25	do	Remington (3)	6 months	
1883		Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months	5
1882	200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	5 months	5
Oct. 8, 1888	16	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	7 months.	
Jan., 1884	500	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6, 8, or 10 months.	
1884	143	Stenograph and Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (7), caligraph (2) Remington (1), National (1).	4 to 9 mos. machine system; 12 mos. pencil system.	5
1881	213	Munson's phonography and Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Yost (10)	2 years	5
Jan., 188[illegible]	40	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (1), Hammond (1).	3 or 4 mos.	
1887	4[illegible]	Benn Pitman's and also Isaac Pitman's.	Caligraph (1)		5
Oct. 1 [illegible]	[illegible]	Lindsley's takigraphy.	Hammond		
Nov. [illegible]	42	Benn Pitman's phonography modified.	Caligraph (1)	4 to 5 mos.	5
Jan. [illegible]	[illegible]	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	6 months	
May [illegible]	[illegible]	do	Remington		
1881	11[illegible]	Duployan shorthand	do	3 months to 2 years.	4
		Benn Pitman's phonography modified			
Oct. [illegible]	[illegible]	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)		
Nov. 188[illegible]	7	do	Remington	20 weeks	
188[illegible]	[illegible]	do	Caligraph (1)	1 year	4

Statistics of instruction in shorthand i

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number	
					Day.	
					Male.	Female.
	KENTUCKY—con.					
423	Farmington	Abbott Family School for Boys.	Geddes G. Abbott	1		
424	Houlton	Ricker Classical Institute.	C. L. Estes	1	4	6
425	Pittsfield	Maine Central Institute.	M. B. Park	1	4	6
426	Portland	Portland School of Stenography.	Miss A. L. Sawyer	1	4	31
427	do	Private instruction	Barrows & Perkins.	1		
428	do	do	Bates Torrey	1		
429	Rockland	Rockland Commercial College.	Dora A. Ames	2	5	9
430	Waterville	Private instruction	Mrs. S. G. Crosby	1		
	MARYLAND.					
431	Baltimore (111 W. Franklin St.	Barnett's Business College.	C. E. Barnett	2	*10	*5
432	Baltimore (904 N. Stricker St.).	Chaney Stenographic Institute.	R. G. Chaney, A. M.	1	12	9
433	Baltimore	The Gymnasium School.	W. T. Watson	1	6	
434	Near Baltimore	Mt. St. Joseph College.	Bro. Isidore	2	6	
435	Baltimore (702 W. Saratoga St.).	Private instruction	Arthur T. Buck	1		
436	Baltimore	do	Elizabeth M. Chism.	1	2	2
437	do	do	W. J. Mackee	1		
438	do	do	Geo. M. Shriva	1	3	
439	do	Sadler's Bryant and Stratton Business College.	G. E. Teeple	2		
440	do	St. Peter's Roman Catholic High School.	Rev. Bro. Andrew	2	56	
441	do	Samuel Ready School for Girls.	Arthur D. Thompson.	1		
442	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Stanley Baker	1		
443	do	Young Men's Christian Association West Branch.	Edgar W. Day	1		
444	Catonsville	Mt. de Sales Academy.	Mary L. Watson	1		
445	do	Private instruction	John Watson	1		
446	Cokesbury	West Nottingham Academy.	John G. Conner	1	9	3
447	Cumberland	Young Men's Christian Association.	J. W. Wincow	1	7	
448	Elkton	Private instruction	Rev. John Jones	1	6	6

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Mar. 1, 1890	23	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 to 8 mos.		$35 shorthand; $10 typewriting.	339
Sept. 4, 1888	60	Cross's shorthand	Remington (2), Caligraph (2).		40	$30	340
Apr., 1890	5	do	Remington (1)	5 months		$40	341
Mar. 12, 1888	200	do	Remington	6 months	52	$40	342
Jan., 1890	7	do	Caligraph	3 to 6 mos.		50 cents per lesson	343
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	4 to 5 mos.		$40	344
1884	15	do		6 months		$50	345
Sept., 1888	75	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (3)	3 or 4 mos.	46	$35 per course	346
July. 1887	*40	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and World.	30 weeks	50	$8 per term of ten weeks.	347
Jan. 1, 1890	5	Scovil's shorthand		12 weeks		$10	348
1888		Munson's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (2).	4 months		$20	349
1884		Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph	20 weeks	46	$1 per week	350
Jan., 1889	*15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	1 year			351
Sept. 3, 1889	40	Cross's shorthand.	Remington	5 months	52	$5 per month	352
June 1, 1890	5	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph			$5	353
1880		Graham's phonography.	Remington (5), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	6 to 8 mos.	48	$50, shorthand; $15, typewriting.	354
Sept., 1887	80	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	3 months	48	$50	355
Oct. 1, 1880		do	Remington	4 months		$15 for course	356
		do	Caligraph	3 months		50 cents per hour	357
Jan., 1890	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	6 to 8 mos.		75 cents per lesson.	358
Apr. 15, 1890	14	do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	5 months	52	$50	359
Sept., 1889	50	Cross's shorthand.	Remington and International.	6 months	38	$8 for 12 weeks	360
1886	62	Graham's phonography.	Remington (4)		34	$34	361
Aug., 1887		Cross's shorthand	Caligraph and Remington.	2½ months		$40 for course	362
June, 1889	*39	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (1)			$10 for 20 lessons	363
Nov., 1888	40	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (1)	7 months to 1 year.		$35 to $40	364
Feb., 1890	16	Isaac Pitman's phonography	Remington		52	$25 for 3 months	365
June 29, 1890	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.					366
Jan. 20, 1890	7	Benn Pitman's and Moran's phonography.	Caligraph	Average 6 mos.	50	$40 for shorthand course; $15 for typewriting course.	367
Sept. 11, 1889	7	Cross's shorthand	do	2 years	40	$100	368
Sept. 2, 1884	110	do	Remington (2)	6 months	48	$50 cents per week.	369

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	KANSAS—cont'd.										
370	Topeka	Private instruction	Thos. R. Hyatt	1			3	2			5
371	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	C. H. Nettels	1			15		1		16
372	Weir City	do	Rev. B. F. Smith	1			5	6			11
373	Wellington	Fazel's Shorthand Institute.	C. D. Fazel	1	8	4					1
374	Wichita	Private instruction	N. J. Waterbury	1	15	5	15	5			4
375	do	Southwestern Business College.	Miss Emma E. Cowan.	2	50	75	6	8	5		14
376	do	Wichita School of Shorthand Writing.	Mrs. Laura E. Sandefur.	2	5	7	3				
377	Wilson	Wilson Private School.	J. W. Howes	1			30	15	1		
378	Winfield and Wellington.	Fazel Bros. Shorthand Institute.	John H. Fazel	3							
379	do	Private instruction	W. G. Tidd	1		2	5	1			
380	Winfield	Southwest Kansas M. E. College.	G. P. Van Wye	2	8	7	3	4		2	
	KENTUCKY.										
381	Bowling Green	Potter College	Miss Bettie Thompson.	1		21					
382	do	Southern Normal School and Business College.	Devona Gilmore	1	15	5	6	4			
383	Corinth	Corinth Academy	F. M. Hurst	2	15	11					
384	Covington	Covington School of Phonography.	Kate A. Myers	1	7	27					
385	Dayton	Private instruction	A. G. Kriedler	1			2	2			
386	Hopkinsville	do	C. H. Dietrich	1	1	4	10				
387	Lexington	Commercial College of Kentucky University.	Miss Georgia Hayes.	2	122	21					
388	do	State Agricultural and Mechanical College.	Miss May E. Millikan.	2	27	11					
389	Louisville	Benn Pitman School of Phonography.	Mrs. E. E. Dougherty.	1		15		1			
390	do	Bryant & Stratton Business College.	J. D. Creager	3	63	198	31	11	14	21	
391	do	Pernin Shorthand Institute.	John L. King	1	21	49	16	4	2	3	
392	do	Private instruction	H. W. Clarke	1						1	
393	do	do	Miss C. T. Curle	1	5	1	2	1			
394	do	do	C. W. Dorsey	1			4				
395	do	St. Xavier's Institute.	Rev. Bro. James	1	23						
396	Madisonville	National Institute	E. McCulley	1	10	3					
397	Maysville	School of Phonography.	Miss Mollie E. Cummings.	1	16	14		4			
398	Millersburg	Millersburg Female College.	Miss Daisy Shettman.	1		6					
399	Owensboro	Private instruction	T. D. McIntosh	2	15	4	10	10			

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
.....	.....	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	60 lessons, 3 hours each.	30	$2 per evening	370
Oct. 1, 1889	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....do	6 months..	24	Membership in association.	371
Nov., 1889	11	....do	Remington and Caligraph.	24 lessons.	....	$4 for 12 lessons...	372
1889.....	12	....do	Remington	3 months..	12	$35 per term	373
Jan. 8, 1890	53	Graham's phonography.	....do	6 months..	....	$50 per term	374
Jan., 1885	*250	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (5).	8 months..	52	$50.....	375
Nov., 1887	45	....do	Remington	10 weeks..	52	$25 per term	376
Apr., 1888	45	....do	None	4 years ...	24	$10 per term of 24 lessons.	377
1886.....	*100	....do	Remington (2) ...	6 months..	50	$10 per month.....	378
1889.....	8	....do	....do	3 months..	44	$30 for 50 lessons..	379
Dec. 1, 1889	24	McKee's shorthand.	Smith and Hammond (3).	3 to 5 mos.	50	$50.....	380
Sept. 9, 1889	21	Mason's	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	10 months.	40	$5 for 5 months ...	381
1875.....	.....	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	5 months..	46	$1 per week.....	382
Sept. 1, 1889	26	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)....	2 school years.	40	$12 per year	383
Jan., 1887	72	....do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 to 9 mos.	....	.....	384
1887.....	10	....do	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 months.	....	75 cents per lesson	385
1886.....	40	Pernin's shorthand.	Hall	6 months..	....	$10 per month	386
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (8)	3 months..	52	$35.....	387
Aug., 1888	93	....do	Caligraph (2), Remington (1), Hammond (1).	5 to 6 mos.	52	$25.....	388
1883.....	*150	....do	Caligraph and Remington.	6 to 12 mos.	....	$50.....	389
1885.....	*850	Munson's phonography.	Remington (12), Caligraph (9), Yost (1).	5 months..	50	$35, 3 months; $60. 6 months; $85, 9 months; $110, year.	390
1885.....	165	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (4) . .	3 months..	52	$10 per month	391
.....	*15	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington	3 to 6 mos.	....	$25 to $40	392
Mar., 1887	68	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond and Remington (4).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$3 per month.....	393
1885.....	.....	....do	Caligraph, Remington.	3 to 6 mos.	....	$5 to $10 per month.	394
1883.....	153	Munson's phonography.	Remington (2).	2 years....	42	50 cents per month.	395
1883.....	*50	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	42 weeks..	48	$36 for 42 weeks ..	396
May, 1889	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 months..	44	$55 per annum or $30 6 months.	397
Jan., 1888	.....	....do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	5 months..	40	$30.....	398
Jan., 1889	94	....do	Remington (1), Hammond (1).	6 months..	52	$50	399

Statistics of instruction in shorthan

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Numb Day. Male.	Female.
	MASSACHUSETTS—continued.					
476	Chicopee	St. Joseph's Parochial School.	Brother Cammillus.	4	22	...
477	Everett	Private instruction	S. Grant Stewart	2	3	
478	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	....do	1	...	...
479	Fall River	Advanced Free Evening School.	Edward V. Murphy.	1	...	...
480	....do	Fall River Business College and School for Shorthand.	Jno. P. Ogden	1	...	...
481	....do	Holmes' B. and S. Commercial College.	William Turner	1	...	...
482	....do	Private instruction	....do	1	...	...
483	Holyoke	Child's Business College.	Annie D. Atwood	1	...	
484	....do	Holyoke High School	J. H. Farley	1	17	2
485	....do	Private instruction	....do	1	11	
486	....do	....do	Miss Minnie A. Farley.	2	7	
487	Lawrence	Cannon's Commercial College.	N. N. Bishop	1	1	1
488	....do	Private instruction	John Sacher	1	1	...
489	Lowell	Lowell Commercial College.	L. E. Kimball	1	3	
490	....do	Private instruction	Wm. H. Jones	1	...	...
491	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Clifton C. Dexter	1	...	...
492	Lynn	Private instruction	Miss S. A. Webster.	1	2	1
493	....do	Shorthand Class, Public Evening Schools.	M. W. Woodward	1	...	...
494	New Bedford	Private instruction	John M. Case	...	...	...
495	Northampton	....do	J. H. Farley	1	...	...
496	Peppereell	....do	Orcutt N. Carr	1	...	...
497	Quincy	....do	Rev. Geo. Benedict	1	4	
498	Roxbury	....do	Geo. W. St. Amant	2	...	...
499	Sandwich	....do	D. F. Chessman	1	1	...
500	Springfield	Child's Business College.	Barter J. Griffin	1	2	5
501	....do	Collegiate Institute	Chas. Mayr	1	4	
502	....do	Private instruction	J. H. Farley	1	...	
503	....do	....do	Wm. L. Gammons	1	2	
504	....do	....do	John S. Hull	1	18	1
505	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	F. P. Frost	1	...	...

a One of these students was taught in Ayer, Mass.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1889	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)	3 years	40	$20 per year	400
Apr., 1890	3	do					401
Nov. 15, 1889		do	Caligraph			$3 per month	402
1882	300	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	6 to 12 mos.		$5 to $10 per month	403
Jan. 1, 1888	60	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	8 to 12 mos.	52	$10 per month	404
1885	50	do	do	10 months	52	do	405
Dec. 1, 1889	25	do	Remington (3)	6 months		$10	406
1883		Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months	52	$10 per month daily lessons; $5 per month every other day.	407
1882	200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	5 months	52	$10 per month	408
Oct. 8, 1888	16	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	7 months		do	409
Jan., 1884	500	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6, 8, or 10 months.		$5 per month	410
1884	143	Stenograph and Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (7), caligraph (2). Remington (1), National (1).	4 to 9 mos. machine system; 12 mos. pencil system.	52	$25 per quarter for each branch (shorthand and typewriting) to gentlemen; $15 to ladies.	411
1881	213	Munson's phonography and Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Yost (10)	2 years	52	$10 per month	412
Jan., 1888	40	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Hammond (1).	3 or 4 mos.		$7.50 per month	412½
1887	45	Benn Pitman's and also Isaac Pitman's.	Caligraph (1)		50	$2 per month	413
Oct. 1, 1889	8	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Hammond				414
Nov. 11, 1889	42	Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.	Caligraph (1)	4 to 5 mos.	52	$20 to $50	415
Jan. 1, 1890	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	6 months		$10	416
May 9, 1889	16	do	Remington			50 cents per hour	417
1881	117	Duployan shorthand.	do	3 months to 2 years.	40	$15 per quarter	418
		Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.				$12 to $15	419
Oct. 10, 1888	88	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)			$25 for 40 lessons	420
Nov., 1889	7	do	Remington	20 weeks		$20 for 40 lessons	421
1883	78	do	Caligraph (1)	1 year	40	$5 for 10 weeks	422

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	KENTUCKY—con.										
423	Farmington	Abbott Family School for Boys.	Geddes G. Abbott	1							2
424	Houlton	Ricker Classical Institute.	C. L. Estes	1	4	6					10
425	Pittsfield	Maine Central Institute.	M. B. Park	1	4	6		2			12
426	Portland	Portland School of Stenography.	Miss A. L. Sawyer	1	4	31	2	8	1	3	49
427	....do	Private instruction	Barrows & Perkins.	1							8
428	....do	....do	Bates Torrey	1				7	2	2	11
429	Rockland	Rockland Commercial College.	Dora A. Ames	2	5	9					14
430	Waterville	Private instruction	Mrs. S. G. Crosby	1							6
	MARYLAND.										
431	Baltimore (111 W. Franklin St.	Barnett's Business College.	C. E. Barnett	2	*10	*5	*7	*3			*25
432	Baltimore (904 N. Stricker St.).	Chaney Stenographic Institute.	R. G. Chaney, A. M.	1	12	9	21	7	2	2	53
433	Baltimore	The Gymnasium School.	W. T. Watson	1	6						6
434	Near Baltimore.	Mt. St. Joseph College.	Bro. Isidore	2	6						6
435	Baltimore (702 W. Saratoga St.).	Private instruction	Arthur T. Buck	1			4	3	1		8
436	Baltimore	....do	Elizabeth M. Chism.	1	2	2	2		1		6
437	....do	....do	W. J. Mackee	1			4				4
438	....do	....do	Geo. M. Shriva	1	3		2				5
439	....do	Sadler's Bryant and Stratton Business College.	G. E. Teeple	2							
440	....do	St. Peter's Roman Catholic High School.	Rev. Bro. Andrew	2	56		4				60
441	....do	Samuel Ready School for Girls.	Arthur D. Thompson.	1			1	4			5
442	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Stanley Baker	1			90				90
443	....do	Young Men's Christian Association West Branch.	Edgar W. Day	1			25				25
444	Catonsville	Mt. de Sales Academy.	Mary L. Watson	1							6
445	....do.	Private instruction	John Watson	1					55	15	70
446	Colora	West Nottingham Academy.	John G. Conner	1	9	3					12
447	Cumberland	Young Men's Christian Association.	J. W. Wincow	1	7						7
448	Elkton	Private instruction	Rev. John Jones	1	6	6					12

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1888	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	2 years	38	$12 per quarter	423
1887	*30	do	None				424
Sept. 5, 1888	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 months	37	$18 per term (12 weeks).	425
		do	Remington (2)	3 to 5 mos.	44	$25	426
May 1, 1890	15	Pitman's and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph (4)			$10 for 20 lessons	427
1884	50 or 60	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	20 weeks	20	$25 and $15 per course.	428
Sept., 1888		do	Remington (1)	6 months	42	$20 per term of 11 weeks.	429
1882		Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph			75 cents per lesson	430
May 1, 1886		Watson's phonography.	Remington (3), Hammond (3), Caligraph (1), National (1).	6 months	38	$50 for 6 months.	431
1868		Graham's phonography principally; Benn Pitman's, also; Isaac Pitman's and Munson's systems occasionally.	Remington (1)	3 to 10 mos.	44	$10 per month for 3 hours daily instruction; $5 per month for 2 lessons per week.	432
Sept., 1886	25	Watson's phonography.	Remington	2 years	40	$60 per year	433
1885	34	Munson's and Watson's phonography.	do	1 year	36	$5 per year	434
	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.		6 months		$1 per lesson for first ten lessons, then 50 cents.	435
May, 1889	6	do		1 year	44	$10 per quarter	436
1885	40	do	Caligraph		40	From $10 to $15 per quarter.	437
Jan., 1888	7	do	Remington (1), Smith (1).	10 to 12 mos.			438
1888		McKee's shorthand.	Remington	6 months	52	$30 for 3 months	439
Sept., 1889	120	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (3), Hammond (1).	1 year	40	Free	440
Dec., 1888	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	9 months	36	$10 for 13 weeks	441
1880	500 to 600	Graham's phonography.	Remington		26	Membership in association.	442
Oct. 1, 1887	about 75	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		5 months	20		443
Mar., 1890	6	Watson's phonography.					444
		do				50 cents per hour; by mail free.	445
Apr., 1889	12	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (2)		40		446
Oct. 1, 1889	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)	2 terms	28	Membership in association ($5).	447
Nov., 1889	12	do	Remington	6 months		$40	448

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	MARYLAND—con.										
449	Emmitsburg	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister of Charity	3							
450	Hagerstown	Wolf's Business Institute.	D. Elmer Wolf	2	7	6	2	1			16
451	Hampden	St. Mary's Class	John Spring, jr	1			2	3			5
	MASSACHUSETTS.										
452	Boston	Allen Institute	G. G. Allen	3	23	88	5	9	3	5	133
453	do	Beale's Shorthand School.	Chas. C. Beale	3	7	88	5	18	2	7	127
454	do	Boston Evening High School.	Wm. F. Murray, T. D. Apollonio.	2							
455	do	Bryant & Stratton Commercial School.	Geo. M. Holman	5	25	175					200
456	do	Comer's Commercial College.	Benj. A. Farnham	2	50	100	30	20			170
457	do	French's Business College.	Miss M. F. Butterworth.	1	4	20					24
458	do	Greenwood's School of Shorthand.	S. G. Greenwood	1	15	150	5	20		20	210
459	do	Hall Commercial College.	Aldis O. Hall	3	10	60	5	25	3	8	111
460	do	Hickox's Shorthand School.	W. E. Hickox	2							
461	do	Jenkins' School of Shorthand.	W. L. Jenkins	2	50	150	5	20			225
462	do	Mrs. Chandler's Home School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	Mrs. M. Alderson Chandler.	2	3	63	33	23			*a* 122
463	Boston (Jamaica Plain).	Private instruction	Armistead K. Baylor.	1	1	1	2	1			5
464	Boston	do	Miss N. S. Hardy	1		15				1	16
465	do	do	Adam Howe	1	5	20	4	14	2	23	68
466	do	do	Wm. B. Wright				2	3			5
467	do	Sawyer's Commercial College.	M. W. Woodward	1		6					6
468	South Boston	School of phonography; School of Art.	Wm. B. Wright	2	30	45	30	45			150
469	Boston	Weymouth Shorthand School.	John G. Weymouth.	1	11	44	9	36	2	6	108
470	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	John H. Urich	1			89				89
471	do	do	E. E. Marshall	6			48	7			55
472	Cambridge	Evening High School	Emily A. Thackray.	2			*55	*60			*115
473	Canton Junction.	Private instruction	M. J. Lonergan	1	1	5	1				7
474	Charlestown	Charlestown Branch Evening High School.	Richard F. Sullivan.	1	15	5	*70	*55			*145
475	Charlestown, (16 Bolton Place)	Private instruction	Alcott W. Stockwell.	1				2			2

a These figures include pupils taught in East Boston Evening High School and Murdoch Free School.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1886	50	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington, Smith and Hall (4).	.....	40	$15 per term	449
1889	.....	Munson's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (4)	.....	50	$50	450
May, 1889	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	1 year 6 mos.	32	$10 for 20 lessons	451
June 1, 1880	*1,000	Allen's phonography.	Hammond, Remington, Caligraph, Yost and Hall, Caligraph (8).	20 and 60 lessons.	52	$15, $35, $45	452
Sept. 1, 1884	557	Beale's phonography.	Remington (5), Hammond (1).	4 months	48	$40	453
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	20	Free	454
1886	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington (30), Caligraph (30).	10 months.	40	$40 for ten weeks	455
1884	*500	....do	Remington, Caligraph.	4 to 6 mos.	39	$45 for 13 weeks	456
Aug., 1880	223	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond and Remington.	24 weeks	52	$35 per term of 12 weeks.	457
Dec. 1, 1885	410	....do	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond (25).	6 months	....	$40 for 80 lessons	458
Sept., 1888	300	Hall's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost (8).	3 months	52	$40 for 3 months	459
.....	.....	.....	Remington (30)	5 months	....	$20 for first month; $15 a month thereafter.	460
May 1, 1882	1,800	Munson's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Hammond (17).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$12 per month	461
.....	.....	Chandler's stachygraphy.	Remington (2), Caligraph (3), Yost (2).	4 to 5 mos.	....	$20 per month	462
Apr., 1888	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	....	$1 per hour	463
Sept. 12, 1887	36	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	4 to 6 mos.	38	$40 for 3 months	464
Apr., 1852	350	Lindsley's stachygraphy.	Caligraph (3)	3 months	45	$20	465
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	466
1886	26	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Hammond.	.....	....	$50 for course	467
Dec., 1885	.....	....do	.....	5 months	22	Free	468
Oct., 1888	125	....do	Caligraph (2), Hammond (2).	3 months	52	$35	469
1883	656	....do	Remington	.....	24	Membership in association.	470
1881	417	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	20	Free	471
Jan. 3, 1889	150	....do	None	100 evenings.	....	None	472
Jan. 889	7	Allen's phonography.	Yost (1)	3 to 6 mos.	....	$35 for 60 lessons	473
Nov. 9, 1888	*300	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	.....	22	Free	474
.....	2	Graham's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	475

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of s			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	
	MINNESOTA—continued.							
558	Crookston	Crookston School of Shorthand.	J. B. Lanigan	1	....	....	....	
559	Duluth	Parsons's Shorthand Institute, Parsons's Business College.	A. C. Parsons	2	12	13	10	
560	...do	Private instruction	Miss Evangeline Chapman.	1	2		....	
561	Mankato	Mankato Business College.	Miss Minnie Dassel.	1	5	6	4	
562	...do	Private instruction	Miss Nettie L. Tompkins.	1	....	....	3	
563	Minneapolis	Bower's Shorthand School.	George B. Bower	3	a53	a109	....	
564	...do	Caton's Shorthand School.	T. J. Caton	3	76	56	....	
565	...do	Curtiss Commercial College.	Wm. H. Curtiss	3	51	87	12	
566	...do	Northwestern College of Commerce.	Miss S. L. Morrow	3	45	80	25	
567	Minneapolis, 1214 Linden avenue.	Private instruction	C. T. Moffett	1	1	....	....	
568	Minneapolis	...do	R. S. Reeves	1	....	....	50	
569	...do	Private instruction, University of Minnesota.	George A. Clark	1	20	....	....	
570	...do	Pickard & Gruman's School of Shorthand, Archibald Business College.	G. A. Gruman	2	20	50	9	
571	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Geo. B. Bower	1	....	....	19	
572	New Ulm	Dr. Martin Luther College.	.....	...	30	....	....	
573	Northfield	Carleton College	Miss S. S. Crosby	1	....	....	....	
574	Red Wing	Beeman's Actual Business College.	A. Rosenberger	1	21	23	4	
575	St. Paul	Cretin High School	Bro. Ambrose	3	78	....	....	
576	...do	College of Shorthand and Typewriting.	Miss J. D. Hess	3	53	87	30	
577	...do	Curtis Commercial College.	Miss Hattie J. Thompson.	2	27	57	2	
578	...do	Globe Business College.	Frank A. Maron	2	17	21	12	
579	...do	Shorthand and Typewriting Institute, St. Paul Business College.	E. Robb	2	8	32	4	
580	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	.....	1	....	....	10	
581	St. Peter	Gustavus Adolphus College.	John L. Hallstrom	1	3	4	....	
582	Sauk Centre	Sauk Centre Academy	Miss A. L. Galusha	1	1	3	....	
583	Stillwater	Stillwater School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	H. L. Andrews	2	6	18	12	

a These figures include evening pupils.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1889	50	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	3 years	40		476
1884	*30	Graham's phonography.	do	3 to 5 mos.		$5 for 12 lessons	477
Oct., 1888	32	do	Caligraph (1)	5 months	20	$2 for 20 lessons	478
1889	25	Munson's phonography.	None		16	Free	479
Apr. 1, 1890	13	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	3 to 6 mos.		$10 per month	480
1889	20	do	Hammond (3)	6 months	45	$60	481
		do	None	6 months	24	$25 for individual instruction; in class, $15.	482
1886	20	Cross's shorthand.	Remington	6 months	42	$10 per month	483
Oct. 1, 1889	42	Munson's phonography.	do	6 months	40	Free	484
July 1, 1889	20	do				$1 per lesson	485
Sept., 1888	47	do	Remington	24 weeks		75 cents per lesson	486
1887	25	Cross's shorthand	Yost (1), Caligraph (1).	4 months		$40 for 3 months	487
Oct., 1889		Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph			$1 per hour	488
Sept. 1, 1888	33	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond, Caligraph, and Remington (5).	10 months.	42	$25 per quarter	489
1882	25	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months		$10 for 12 lessons	490
		Graham's phonography.	None	20 weeks		Membership in association.	491
Sept., 1888	29	do	Remington and Caligraph (3).	6 months		$12 per month	492
Oct., 1885	225	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None		26	Free	493
May, 1890	8	Graham's phonography.	Hammond (1)	About a year.		$50 for course	494
Nov. 1, 1889	10	Munson's phonography.	Remington	24 weeks		$1 per lesson	495
Sept. 10, 1889	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	World (1)	6 to 8 mos.	32	$10 for 20 lessons	496
1885	10	do	Caligraph (1)	From 3 months up.	52	$50	497
May, 1889	6	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (2)	6 months	50	50 cents an hour	498
1872	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.		6 weeks		$6	499
Sept., 1887	175	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2)	6 months	40	$60	500
1878	200	Gabelsberger's stenography	Merritt, Hammond, and Remington.	3 months	40	$15 for course	501
Oct. 1, 1889	18	Munson's phonography.	Remington	24 weeks		$1 per lesson	502
		do					503
1880		do	None	15 lessons for theory, 15 for practice.		75 cents per lesson	504
		Graham's phonography.				$3	505

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in t

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of		
					Day.		Eve ing
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	MINNESOTA—continued.						
584	Winona	Winona Business College and Shorthand Institute.	Miss Cora I. Ross	1	3	12	2
	MISSISSIPPI.						
585	Byhalia	Waverly Institute	A. M. Moore	1	2	3	....
586	Columbus	Industrial Institute and College.	Miss Helen Graves	1	....	37	....
587	(Near) Courtland, Miss.	Shiloh public school	W. S. Cooper	1	10	....	5
588	Houston	Mississippi Normal College.	M. Lily Johnson	1	1	4	...
589	Iuka	Iuka Normal Institute.	G. T. Howerton	1	....	....	...
590	Lexington	Lexington Normal College.	Miss Nettie C. Wall.	3	2	10	...
591	Meridian	State Business College.	Miss H. Julia Smith.	2	3	5	...
592	Pass Christian	Pass Christian Institute.	Henry C. Mayer	1	....	*12	....
	MISSOURI.						
593	Cape Girardeau	St. Vincent's College.	Rev. Wm. Nolan, C. M.	3	*15	....	....
594	Chillicothe	Carver's Business College and Shorthand Institute.	W. S. Carver	2	2	....	2
595	Clinton	Clinton Academy	R. D. Waddell	2	2	....	....
596	College Mound	McGee College	Mrs. Jesse Stamper	2	3	9	....
597	Concordia	St. Paul's College	A. H. Schoede	1	4	....	....
598	Fulton	Synodical Female College.	N. D. Thurmond	1	9	10	....
599	Greenfield	Ozark College	W. B. McReynolds	1	9	5	....
600	Hannibal	Conservatory of Music, private instruction.	Mrs. J. S. Barlow	1	4	8	....
601	....do	Private instruction	Mrs. Emilie L. Treat.	1	8	25	3
602	Humphreys	Shorthand Institute, Humphrey's College and Business Institute.	Miss Emma McClaskey.	1	12	8	....
603	Ironton	Private instruction	J. W. Worsnop	1	3	2	....
604	Kansas City	Dickson School of Shorthand.	W. B. Dickson	3	30	100	20
605	....do	Kansas City Business University.	W. O. Melton	2	10	29	4
606	....do	National Business College.	S. L. Daily	2	60	26	11
607	....do	Powell's Shorthand School.	John C. Powell	1	2	13	3
608	....do	Spalding's Commercial College.	Willis H. Leavitt	2	42	168	5
609	Kirkwood	St. Peter's school	Mother Mary	1	....	....	....
610	Jefferson City	Lincoln Institute, private instruction.	W. H. Furniss	1	....	....	....

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Jan. 1, 1890	11	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph	8 months	....	75 cents per lesson.	506
Sept., 1878	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	.....	38½	$30 per year	507
1889	24	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph and Hammond.	6 to 10 mos.	43	$10 per 4 weeks	508
1882	200	Cross's shorthand.	Remington	6 months	43	$10 per month	509
1885	*200	McKee's shorthand.	....do	4 months	40	$50 for course	510
1889	43	Osgoodby's phonography.	Caligraph	10 months.	48	$10 per month	511
1886	10	Munson's phonography.	Remington	.....	....	$1 per lesson	512
Mar. 4, 1885	62	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	3 to 6 mos	....	....do	513
Aug., 1887	68	Cogswell's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 to 8 mos.	51	$50 for term of 6 months.	514
Oct., 1888	33	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 to 9 mos.	....	$1 per lesson	515
.....	.....	Graham's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	516
Sept., 1886	70	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	1 year	40	50 cents per week for nonresident pupils.	517
Nov. 1, 1888	15	Moran's phonography and the stenograph.	Caligraph (1)	3 to 5 mos.	50	$50 commercial course.	518
1879	100	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1)	6 to 10 weeks.	52	$5 for 12 lessons	519
1884	.....	Cross's shorthand.	Remington	1 year	39	$10 per term of 12 weeks.	520
1888	38	....do	Hammond and Remington (3).	6 months	36	Tickets	521
July, 1886	200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph and Crandall.	1 year	36	$1 per week	522
Jan. 6, 1890	8	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3)	6 months	....	$35	523
Oct. 1884	763	Moran's phonography.	Remington (4)	4 to 6 mos.	52	$2.50 per week	524
1880	*145	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	3 months	40	$40 per year	525
1877	60	....do	Caligraph (3)	3 to 5 mos.	48	$25 for 3 months	526
July 16, 1889	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	4	$5 for 4 weeks, 50 cents single lessons.	527
Sept., 1886	189	....do	Remington (2)	1 year	40	$30 per year	528
1887	65	Osgoodby's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Smith (1), Remington (1).	6 to 8 mos.	50	$15 for 12 weeks	529
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	3 to 12 mos.	....	$15 to $50	530
About 1883	.....	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington, and Yost (10).	6 to 8 mos.	52	$50 for 6 months	531
Sept. 1, 1889	45	Gabelsberger-Richter stenography.	.....	1 year	43	$1.50 per month	532
Oct., 1889	29	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2), Hammond (1).	3 years	43	$5 per quarter	533
Sept. 15, 1885	200	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2), Yost (3).	3 to 6 mos.	50	$25 for 3 months; $50 life scholarship.	534

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	MICHIGAN—con.										
535	Escanaba	Private instruction	Rev. Owen Jones	1	6	24	....	....	....	....	27
536	Flint	Flint Normal College.	G. S. Kimball	2	10	22	....	....	....	....	32
537	Gladwin	Gladwin High School.	F. C. Smith	1	16	14	4	1	....	....	35
538	Grand Rapids	Grand Rapids Business College.	George B. McC. Withey.	1	6	23	5	7	....	....	41
539	....do	West Michigan Business University.	John A. Craver	2	43	53	48	23	....	2	169
540	Hancock	School of phonography, Hancock Commercial College.	L. M. Sanders	1	9	5	3	1	....	....	18
541	Ishpeming	Northern Michigan Business College.	E. E. Rogers	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....
542	Jackson	Devlin's Business College.	Thomas I. Daniel	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	.....
543	Kalamazoo	Private instruction	Miss Katie Scripps	1	....	....	1	5	....	....	6
544	....do	Shorthand Institute, Parsons' Business College.	Carrie A. Parsons	1	10	25	5	5	1	....	46
545	Marquette	Upper Peninsula Business College.	Maggie Gordon	1	2	13	4	2	....	....	21
546	Menominee	Institute of Shorthand, Northwestern College of Commerce.	Miss Jessie Wilson	1	10	25	....	....	....	....	35
547	Monroe	St. Mary's Academy	.....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	3
548	Muskegon	Ferris Business College.	H. W. Rathbun	2	5	15	5	....	....	....	25
549	....do	Private instruction	Frank H. Bassett	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	1
550	Orchard Lake	Michigan Military Academy, private instruction.	Jas. C. F. Hollister	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	2
551	Pinckney	Pinckney Union School.	Wm. A. Sprout	1	3	3	....	....	....	....	6
552	Pontiac	Private instruction	Flora Osmun	1	3	12	....	....	....	....	15
553	Port Huron	Academy of the Sacred Heart.	Sisters of Providence.	4	7	67	....	....	....	....	74
554	Saginaw	O'Donnell's Business College.	D. J. O'Donnell	2	35	25	10	5	45	30	150
555	Saginaw (E. S.)	Saginaw Shorthand Institute, Saginaw Business College.	D. Morrison	1	2	12	4	1	....	....	19
556	Spring Arbor	Spring Arbor Academy.	R. V. Hough	1	....	....	....	....	....	....	20
	MINNESOTA.										
557	Brainerd	Northwestern Business College.	J. F. Gerrity	1	12	4	2	....	....	....	18

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Mar., 1890	27	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	1 year, 1 lesson a week.	....	Free.....	535
July 7, 1888	47	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph.....	30 weeks..	50	$8 per ten weeks..	536
1888.....	35	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Odell (1), Hammond (1), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	.....	40	$2.50 for 10 lessons.	537
June 1, 1889	41	Graham's, Munson's, and Benn Pitman's phonography, Cross's shorthand, and the stenograph.	Remington (2)...	6 months to 1 year.	52	$25 for 3 months ..	538
1881.....	530	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington, and Hammond (8).	6 months to 1 year.	50	$10 for 10 weeks ..	539
Oct. 28, 1889	18	Benn Pitman's phonography	Hammond (2)....	6 months .	40	$25 for 6 months ..	540
1887.....	.....	Day's phonography principally, also Scovil's shorthand and the stenograph.	Caligraph, principally.	6 or 7 mos.	52	$40 for 6 months ..	541
.....	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	.....	....	75 cents per lesson.	542
Aug. 1, 1885	15	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph and Remington.	3 months..	....	50 cents per lesson.	543
1882.....	200	Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 to 9 mos	44	$50 and $60	544
Jan. 1, 1888	43	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1), Yost (1), Hammond (1).	6 months..	52	$40.....	545
May 5, 1890	35	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph (2), Remington (2).	5 to 7 mos.	48	$60.....	546
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	547
Oct. 1, 1888	25	Graham's phonography.	Remington	8 to 12 mos.	48	$60 per year.....	548
May, 1882	13	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)...	6 months .	....	$25.....	549
Jan., 1886	12	Moran's phonography.	....do.....	16 weeks..	....	$30 for private instruction, $20 in class.	550
1887.....	6	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	.....	.....	....	.....	551
.....	15	Pernin's shorthand.	Hammond (1), Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	3 to 7 mos .	....	50 cents per lesson.	552
1889.....	74	Cross's and Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (2)...	3 months ..	40	Free to pupils of school, $10 for 3 months' private instruction.	553
Feb., 1888	150	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost (1).....	6 mos. to 2 years.	48	$35.....	554
Jan. 1, 1890	30	Pernin's shorthand.	Yost.....	4 to 6 mos.	40	$40 for 6 months..	555
Sept. 3, 1889	20	Haven's phonography.	.....	3 months..	40	$18.....	556
Mar. 10, 1890	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)...	6 months..	52	$50 for 6 months ..	557

Statistics of instruction in shortha

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of		
					Day.		Eve ing
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	MISSOURI—con'd.						
633	St. Louis (15th and Olive streets).	High School	D. H. Harris	1	31	39	....
634	St. Louis	Jones Commercial College.	Miss Clara E. Green.	2	20	60	10
635	...do	Modern College	Geo. Wright	1	3	13	3
636	...do	Mound City Commercial College.	Jas. P. Foeller	1	11	1	2
637	...do	Perkins and Herpel's Mercantile College.	Perkins and Herpel.	2	3	10	3
637½	...do	Private instruction	Mrs. Emilie Boeddecker.	1	....	....	1
638	...do	Private instruction. Educational Institute.	F. W. Haid	1	6	2	....
639	...do	Private instruction	W. A. Kinsey	1	....	....	3
640	...do	...do	Mrs. L. E. Macklind.	1	2	6	....
641	...do	...do	Mrs. Dora D. Price	1	....	7	....
642	...do	St. Bridget's High School.	Rev. Brother Novatian.	2	12	....	....
643	...do	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister Mary Margaret.	....	....	9	....
644	St. Louis (16th and Pine streets).	St. Louis High School Addition.	D. H. Harris	1	....	....	25
645	St. Louis	St. Patrick's School	Sister Lucida	1	....	6	....
646	...do	St. Vincent's Girls' School.	Sister Frances Clare.	1	....	4	....
647	...do	Sloan-Duployan Shorthand and Typewriting Institute.	A. C. Crain	3	49	55	....
648	Sedalia	Central Business College.	A. B. McDole	1	55	50	8
649	Stanberry	Stanberry Shorthand College: Great Northwestern Normal School.	E. N. Fesler	2	62	19	....
650	Tarkio	Tarkio College	L. L. Davis	....	....	....	....
651	Walker	Private instruction	Rev. S. B. Ervin	....	1	....	....
652	Warrensburg	State Normal School: Private instruction.	Kate R. Shockey	3	10	15	....
	MONTANA.						
653	Dillon	Private instruction	A. L. Stone	1	....	....	2
654	Helena	Benn Pitman School of Shorthand	Jas. C. Quinn, PH. D., LL. D.	1	....	....	6
655	...do	Phonographic Institute: Helena Business College	Wesley E. Walker	2	15	50	7
656	Livingston	Private instruction	Herbert E. Jones	1	....	....	....
657	White Sulphur Springs.	do	F. E. Sprague	1	1	2	6

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
June 20, 1890	25	Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).	6 to 8 mos.	48	$50 for course	558
Sept. 1, 1885	40	Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 to 9 mos.	50	$60 for 6 months	559
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	do				560
Nov. 11, 1889	15	do	Caligraph (2)	6 to 9 mos.	52	$35 for 6 months	561
May 1, 1888	17	do	Caligraph (1)				562
July 1, 1884	1,082	Munson's, Graham's, and Pitman's phonography.	Remington (14)	Depends on general education of student.	52	$50 for life scholarship.	563
Jan., 1889	172	Pitman's and Munson's phonography, and McKee's shorthand.	Remington (12)	3 months to 1 year.	52	$45 for 6 months	564
		do	Remington (17), Caligraph (8).	6 months	52	$50 for 6 months	565
Nov., 1889	25 to 300	Cross's shorthand and Graham's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond.	About 6 months.	48	$60 for complete course.	566
	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	14 weeks		$20 for course	567
Dec., 1886	*200	do	Remington (2)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$35 for complete course.	568
1889	20	Graham's phonography.	do	1 year	40	$10	569
1880	376	Munson's phonography.	Remington (5)	6 to 8 mos.	52	Full course $50	570
1888	50	do			26	Membership in association ($5)	571
		Stenotachygraphy		1 month		50 cents per lesson.	572
Sept., 1888	80	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	1 school year.	38	$26 per year	573
Sept., 1889	44	do	Remington (3), Hammond (1).	About 6 months.	52	$40 for 6 months	574
1886	178	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (7)	4 years	40	$1.50 and $2 per month.	575
Sept., 1889	207	do	Remington (10)	6 months	52	$50 for 6 months	576
Sept., 1881		Munson's phonography.	Remington (6), Caligraph (3).	do	52	do	577
June 1, 1885	316	Moran's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	4 months	52	$40 full course	578
1884	247	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (6)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$90 per year	579
1885	40	Pitman's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Remington	6 months		Membership in association.	580
Nov., 1889	7	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)	do	52	$30 for 6 months	581
Sept. 2, 1889	4	do	do	3 to 6 mos.	50	$35 for course	582
May 1, 1890	36	Graham's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost (total 8).	6 to 8 mos.	48	$40 for 4 months; no charge for subsequent attendance.	583

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	MINNESOTA—continued.										
584	Winona	Winona Business College and Shorthand Institute.	Miss Cora I. Ross.	1	3	12	2				17
	MISSISSIPPI.										
585	Byhalia	Waverly Institute	A. M. Moore	1	2	3					5
586	Columbus	Industrial Institute and College.	Miss Helen Graves	1		37					37
587	(Near) Courtland, Miss.	Shiloh public school.	W. S. Cooper	1	10		5		2		17
588	Houston	Mississippi Normal College.	M. Lily Johnson	1	1	4					5
589	Iuka	Iuka Normal Institute.	G. T. Howerton	1					1		1
590	Lexington	Lexington Normal College.	Miss Nettie C. Wall.	3	2	10					12
591	Meridian	State Business College.	Miss H. Julia Smith.	2	3	5					8
592	Pass Christian	Pass Christian Institute.	Henry C. Mayer	1		*12					*12
	MISSOURI.										
593	Cape Girardeau.	St. Vincent's College.	Rev. Wm. Nolan, C. M.	3	*15				5		20
594	Chillicothe	Carver's Business College and Shorthand Institute.	W. S. Carver	2	2		2				4
595	Clinton	Clinton Academy	R. D. Waddell	2	2						2
596	College Mound	McGee College	Mrs. Jesse Stamper	2	3	9					12
597	Concordia	St. Paul's College	A. H. Schoede	1	4						6
598	Fulton	Synodical Female College.	N. D. Thurmond	1	9	10					19
599	Greenfield	Ozark College	W. B. McReynolds	1	9	5					14
600	Hannibal	Conservatory of Music, private instruction.	Mrs. J. S. Barlow	1	4	8					12
601	....do	Private instruction	Mrs. Emilie L. Treat.	1	8	25	3				36
602	Humphreys	Shorthand Institute; Humphrey's College and Business Institute.	Miss Emma McClaskey.	1	12	8					20
603	Ironton	Private instruction	J. W. Worsnop	1	3	2					5
604	Kansas City	Dickson School of Shorthand.	W. B. Dickson	3	30	100	20	10		3	163
605	....do	Kansas City Business University.	W. O. Melton	2	10	29	4	3	97	40	183
606	....do	National Business College.	S. L. Daily	2	60	26	11	24	1	3	125
607	....do	Powell's Shorthand School.	John C. Powell	1	2	13	3	3	5	20	46
608	....do	Spalding's Commercial College.	Willis H. Leavitt	2	42	168	5	9			224
609	Kirkwood	St. Peter's school	Mother Mary	1							2
610	Jefferson City	Lincoln Institute, private instruction.	W. H. Furniss	1							

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept. 1, 1887	60	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	5 months	50	$35	584
1888	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	World	5 months	....	$5 per month	585
1885	217	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (8)	2 years	39	Free	586
Jan. 1, 1889	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	.....	....	$4 per month	587
Sept. 4, 1888	8	Sloan's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)	4 months	46	$3 per month	588
Sept., 1889	3	Osgoodby's phonography.	Caligraph	20 weeks	46	$1 per week	589
Sept., 1889	12	Graham's phonography and Anderson machine.	Remington	15 months.	40	$2 per month	590
Aug., 1889	20	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph and Hammond (total, 3).	About 5 months.	52	$7.50 per month	591
Oct., 1888	*18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	2 years	40	.....	592
Sept., 1885	25	Sloan - Duployan shorthand.	Remington (2)	3 months	36	$15	593
Dec. 9, 1889	20	Cross's shorthand.	Crandall	About 10 months.	42	$40	594
Sept., 1888	8	Haven's phonography.	.....	5 months	40	$25	595
Sept. 9, 1889	12	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	3 to 4 mos.	38	$2 per week	596
Dec., 1888	20	Gabelsberger's and Lehmann's stenographies.	None	2 to 6 mos.	42	Free	597
Nov., 1889	19	Thurmond's phonography.	.....	.....	....	$10	598
.....	.....	.....	Caligraph	8 months.	40	$5 for course	599
Sept., 1889	12	Barnes's phonography.	....do	.....	52	$5 for 12 lessons	600
June, 1885	75	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	7 to 12 mos.	52	$5 for 4 weeks	601
Sept. 2, 1889	20	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	World	7 weeks to 7 months.	40	$20	602
1885	50	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	6 months	40	$40 for course	603
Sept. 4, 1887	400	Cross's shorthand, modified.	Remington (3), Caligraph (2).	12 weeks	52	$45 for 5 months	604
Jan. 13, 1890	*200	Sloan-Duployan shorthand, modified.	Remington (7), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$50	605
.....	.....	Munson's phonography.	Remington, Yost, and Caligraph (8).	6 months	52	$40 for 6 months	606
Sept. 1, 1884	350	Lindsley's stachygraphy.	Remington (6)	4 months	52	$1 per lesson per hour.	607
Oct. 1, 1881	*600	Any modification of Pitman's phonography.	Remington (6)	4 months	52	$10 per month	608
Sept., 1888	6	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Hammond (3)	6 months	40	$10	609
1888	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	20 weeks	40	$5	610

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in t

[Estim

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of		
					Day.		Ev in
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE—cont'd.						
688	Nashua	Young Men's Christian Association.	Robert W. Matthews.	1	....	....	9
689	Portsmouth	Smith's Academy and Commercial College.	Miss Eleanor C. Spinney.	1	....	10	3
	NEW JERSEY.						
690	Bordentown	Bordentown Military Institute.	Frederic M. McGaw.	1	5	....	....
691	Bridgeton	South Jersey Institute.	Robert L. Himes	1	20	10	....
692	Camden	The Chas. M. Abrahamson Commercial Institute.	J. Howard Brouse.	1	....	....	19
693	Elizabeth	Lansley Business College.	J. H. Lansley, PH. D.	1	5	42	10
694	Hoboken	Private instruction	Augusta J. Sachs	1	....	....	....
695	Jersey City	Jersey City Business College.	Fannie J. Mansley	1	6	30	17
696	....do	Private instruction	Martha B. Fraser	1	....	....	....
697	....do	....do	Walter Pfeiffer	1	2	1	....
698	Millville	Young Men's Christian Association.	Ellsworth Vanaman.	1	....	....	17
699	Mount Holly	Mount Holly Academy.	Henry M. Walradt	1	....	2	....
700	Newark	Coleman National Business College.	Miss Minnie K. Wickert.	2	9	36	....
701	...do	New Jersey Business College.	Miss L. W. Blue	2	....	....	10
702	...do	Private instruction	C. W. Eakeley	..	....	....	2
703	...do	Women's Christian Association.	Ida C. Kennedy	2	....	25	....
704	Orange	Evening school of shorthand.	C. A. Robinson	1	....	....	2
705	Paterson	Paterson Classical Institute and Business College.	Charles F. Gokey	2	12	18	12
706	...do	Private instruction	Geo. Oakley	1	....	....	6
707	Plainfield	...do	Charles A. Case	1	....	....	3
708	...do	...do	Lizette P. Harrison.	1	....	3	....
709	...do	...do	Miss Laura L. Runyon.	1	....	5	....
710	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Joseph A. Robinson.	1	....	....	31
711	Princeton	Private instruction	Herman S. Davis	1	6	10	....
712	...do	...do	J. S. Roddy	1	3	1	....
713	Rahway	...do	Wm. A. Ransom	1	....	....	7
714	Trenton	Trenton Business College.	Mrs. Ida M. Muse	2	25	42	6

a For year 1890, 1891, 13 males received instruction; average attendanc

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1888	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	6 to 8 mos.	36	$12 for 3 months	611
Sept., 1888	*40	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		20 weeks	40	$10	612
Nov., 1889	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)		36	$5 per month	613
July 2, 1889	48	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	12 weeks	51	$35 and $40	614
		Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)				615
Sept. 3, 1888	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 to 10 mos.	40	$40	616
Oct., 1889	23	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Remington	3 to 6 mos.		$5 per month	617
Sept., 1880	*50	Benn Pitman's phonography.		5 months	38	$20	618
		Anderson's machine.	Caligraph	6 to 9 wks.	36	$5 per month	619
May 2, 1890	4	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)			$4 per month	620
Sept., 1888	10	Lindsley's tachygraphy.				Free	621
1883	about 260	Longley's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1), Caligraph (2).	6 months	50	$35	622
June 17, 1890	93	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (7)	4 months	52	$12 per month	623
1884		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)			$5 per month	624
1882	420	do	Remington (4)	3 to 6 mos.	51	$30 for 6 months	625
1885	150	do	Remington (2)	2 years	40	$30 to $50 per year.	626
1882	1,170	Barnes's phonography.	Remington (8), Caligraph (9).	Average, 6 mos.	51	$80 average expense to student.	627
		Rogers' and Carpenter's phonography.	Remington (7), Caligraph (4), Hammond (3), Crandall (2).	6 months	52		628
Dec., 1888	*200 local.	Moran's phonography.	Remington, Yost, and others, about 7.	3 to 5 mos., local; about 1 year by mail.	51	Shorthand and typewriting, local, $50; shorthand, by mail, $20; trial course, $2.	629
German about 1875; English Oct. 17, 1888.	*a* 17	Gabelsberger-Richter stenography.	None	20 lessons.	10	Free	630
1885	*1,000	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 months		$20, by mail	631
1876	1,200	do	Remington (21), Caligraph (1), Hammond (1). Yost (1).	do	52	$65 for 6 months	632

a In English.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of s			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	
	NEW MEXICO.							
715	Albuquerque	Private instruction	Miss L. A. Ferry	1	....	....	3	
716	Las Vegas	Las Vegas Academy a	C. H. Creighton	1	6	....	....	
717	....do	Loretto Academy	Sister Ignatia	2	....	7	....	
718	Santa Fe	....do	J. E. Morrison	2	....	7	....	
719	....do	St. Michael's College.	Rev. Bro. Amian	2	19	....	....	
720	Socorro	Mount Carmel Convent.	Sister Adelaide	1	....	6	....	
	NEW YORK.							
721	Albany	Christian Brothers' Academy of Manhattan College.	Rev. Bro. Famian	5	220	....	....	
722	....do	Northrop's Commercial College.	Mary A. Eggleston	1	1	3	....	
723	....do	Private instruction	Edwin A. Smith	1	....	....	16	
724	....do	School of shorthand and typewriting, Albany Business College.	B. S. Hoit	4	67	138	31	
725	....do	School of shorthand and typewriting.	Miss G. A. M. Walter.	3	20	40	50	
726	....do	Speir's Institute of Shorthand.	S. G. Speir	4	25	45	....	
727	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Edwin A. Smith	1	....	....	10	
728	....do	Young Women's Christian Association.	Grace S. Warner	2	....	....	....	
729	Auburn	Private instruction	Geo. H. Macomber.	1	....	....	5	
730	....do	....do	Mrs. Wm. Price	1	....	5	....	
731	....do	....do	C. B. Quick	1	....	....	4	
732	....do	....do	S. C. Tallman	1	2	11	....	
733	....do	Wheeler's Phonographic School.	G. H. Wheeler	2	1	5	....	
734	Batavia	Batavia Stenographic Institute.	Miss Sarah M. Blount.	2	3	12	21	
735	Binghamton	Lowell Business College.	Helen Hilts	2	6	41	....	
736	....do	N. M. Clarke's School of stenography.	Miss N. M. Clarke	....	5	36	9	
737	....do	The Riley Institute of Shorthand, Riley Business College.	J. F. Riley, A. M., LL. D.	3	30	50	13	
738	Brooklyn	Browne's Brooklyn Business College.	Miss Camille O'Connell.	2	30	75	35	
739	....do	Claghorn's Bryant & Stratton Business College.	Miss Kate Gifford	1	4	16	....	

a Helen A. Carter taught a class of 15 pupils, beginning September 1, 1890; system,
b Some of these pupils were taught in Groton, N. Y.

States for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1885	354	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		40 weeks	40		633
Sept., 1885	250	do	Remington (8), Caligraph (3), Hammond (1).	6 months	52	$65 for 6 months	634
1887	57	do	Remington (2), Caligraph (2).	6 to 12 mos.	52	$10 per month, day school; $5 night school.	635
1889	14	White's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months		$65 6 months	636
July, 1883		Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	do	52	$65 for 6 months	637
Oct. 1, 1889	4	Gabelsberger's stenography.	None	do		Free	637½
1883	30	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond.	1 year	40	$50	638
Dec., 1889	45	Isaac Pitman or other system of phonography.		6 months		$20 for mail course; $30 for oral instruction.	639
Dec., 1865	15	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	5 to 7 mos.	52	$10 per month	640
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	do			Various	641
1886	45	Benn Pitman's and Barnes's phonography.	do	3 years	40	$3 per month	642
Sept., 1886	*20	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	do	1 to 2 years	40	$40	643
About 1882	*1,000	do	None	1 year	40	None	644
1886	14	do	Remington	do	40	$40	645
Sept. 1, 1889	4	do	Yost (1)	6 to 10 mos.	40	$40	646
1885		Crain's Sloan-Duployan phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost.	3 to 5 mos.	52	$50	647
		Scott-Browne's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (6), Caligraph (2), Hammond (1).	6 months	52	$55 per 6 months shorthand and typewriting.	648
Jan. 1, 1885	350	Cross's shorthand.	Remington and Caligraph.	15 weeks	46	$1 per week	649
	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Hammond.	6 months			650
	11	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.		2 to 4 mos.		$16	651
1887	*250	Moran's phonography.	Remington	10 weeks	40	$15	652
		Scott-Browne's phonography.	Yost			Free	653
Oct. 1, 1888		Benn Pitman's phonography.		13 weeks	40	$20 for course	654
1885	180	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography and Pernin's shorthand.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond (6).	6 months	44	$50 for 6 months	655
1889	6	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		About 6 months.		$25	656
Nov. 10, 1889	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	20 weeks	40	$1 per week	657

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	NEBRASKA.										
658	Arborville	Private instruction	L. P. Ensign	1	2	3					5
659	Beatrice	Beatrice Business College.	Myra Lurface	1	10	15	2	2			29
660	Culbertson	Private instruction	Rev. C. E. Fulmer	1	5	2			15	12	34
661	Fairfield	Fairfield College	A. J. Mercer	1	2						2
662	Fremont	Fremont Normal School.	O. H. White	1	*25	*15				1	*41
663	....do	Phonographic Institute, Fremont Business College.	James S. Curry	2	23	20	11	1			55
664	Grand Island	Grand Island Business College.	Mrs. A. M. Hargis	2	17	23					40
665	....do	Private instruction	D. N. Byerlee	1			3	2	1		6
666	Hastings	Academy of the Visitation.	Sister Mary Rose Summers.	2		3					3
667	Holdredge	Magic City Evening School.	L. W. Stayner	1			20	5	4	6	35
668	Indianola	Private instruction	Rev. J. T. Roberts	1	5	9					14
669	Kearney	Midway College of Business.	Will P. Hughes	1	4	13	1	5			23
670	Lincoln	Courier Class of Shorthand, "Capital City Courier."	Bert. E. Betts	2	25	25			5	2	57
671	Lincoln	Private instruction	H. W. Quaintance						1	3	4
672	....do	School of Shorthand, Lincoln Business College.	D. R. Lillibridge	2	25	49	2	4	2	3	83
673	McCook	McCook Business College.	Lillian E. Clark	1	1	2	5			1	9
674	Omaha	Omaha Business College.	C. C. Ewing	2	38	59	8	6	21	5	11
675	....do	Omaha Commercial College.	F. W. Mosher	2	45	59					104
676	....do	Omaha High School	Louis J. Blake	1	14	31					45
677	....do	St. Catherine's Academy (Convent of Mercy).	Miss Corinne Collins.	6	15	112					137
678	....do	Standard Shorthand School, Standard Business College.	Frank E. Bell	2	*25	*75	15	10	7	3	*135
679	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	F. W. Mosher	1			15				15
680	Potter	Private instruction	Oliver Van Olinda	1	4	3					7
681	Republican City	....do	C. E. Fulmer	1					2	4	6
682	Weeping Water	....do	Miss Emma Woodford.	1	7	5					12
683	Wymore	....do	I. Hale, jr	1			6	2			8
	NEW HAMPSHIRE										
684	Concord	Private instruction	F. E. Shurtleff	1	5	5	16	4			30
685	Manchester	....do	A. E. Herrick	2			8	10			18
686	....do	....do	Howard P. Moore	1				2	1	1	3
687	....do	St. Joseph's High School.	Rev. Bro. Catus	2	35						35

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1888	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 to 12 mos.	....	$15	658
Sept. 10, 1888	40	....do	Remington (1), Caligraph (6).	6 months to 1 year.	52	$35 per year	659
1884	*50	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 months	....	$10 for 12 lessons	660
Sept. 1889	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	....do	36	$40 for 6 months	661
July 1, 1889	*40	....do	Caligraph (1), Remington (2).		50	$15 for 10 weeks	662
April 2, 1888	99	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2), Hammond (1).	4 to 9 mos.	52	$30 for 3 months	663
Sept., 1888	60	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2)	3 to 4 mos.	44	$25 for 3 months	664
July, 1886	26	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 mos. to 1 year.	52	50 cents per lesson.	665
1883	11	....do*a*	Remington (1)	3 to 9 mos.	40	$10 per month	666
July 10, 1889	25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond, Yost, and Remington.	6 mos.	....	$50	667
March, 1890	14	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph		....	50 cents per lesson.	668
Oct. 15, 1889	.....	Cross's shorthand.	Yost (3)	4 to 6 mos.	51	$15 per month	669
May 3, 1890	50	Moran's phonography.	Remington (3), Caligraph (1), Yost (3).		....	$10 per month	670
		....do	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	....		671
1884		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (2).	7 months	52	$60	672
Feb. 17, 1890	9	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2)	12 weeks	52	Full course $70	673
Apr. 20, 1889	129	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (1). Remington (10).	6 to 10 mos	52	$50 for 6 months	674
May, 1887	210	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington, Yost, and Caligraph (12).	4 to 8 mos.	52	$15 per month, $60 complete course.	675
Sept., 1887	135	Munson's phonography.	None	1 year	42	Free	676
Sept. 2, 1880	127	Pernin's shorthand.	Yost (2), Remington (4).	3 months	40	....do	677
		Isaac Pitman's phonography and Cross's shorthand.	Remington (7).	6 months	52	$40 for 6 months	678
Nov., 1888	75	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	None		25	Free to members of association.	679
Jan. 1, 1890	17	Benn Pitman's phonography.	International (1).	5 to 12 mos.	52	$20	680
1884	120	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	1 year	52	$20	681
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	3 months	....	$15 for course	682
Nov. 1, 1889	8	....do	....do		32	50 cents per lesson	683
Oct., 1889	30	....do	Remington (2)	25 to 30 lessons.	....	75 cents per lesson.	684
1880		Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	8 months	....	....do	685
Oct., 1887	23	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1)	2½ to 4 mos	24	50 cents per lesson.	686
Jan., 1887	78	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Hammond (1)	2 and 3 years.	39	Free	687

a Isaac Pittman's system was introduced November, 1890.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE—cont'd.										
688	Nashua	Young Men's Christian Association.	Robert W. Matthews.	1			9				a 9
689	Portsmouth	Smith's Academy and Commercial College.	Miss Eleanor C. Spinney.	1		10	3	7			20
	NEW JERSEY.										
690	Bordentown	Bordentown Military Institute.	Frederic M. McGaw.	1	5						5
691	Bridgeton	South Jersey Institute.	Robert L. Himes	1	20	10					30
692	Camden	The Chas. M. Abrahamson Commercial Institute.	J. Howard Brouse.	1			19	28			47
693	Elizabeth	Lansley Business College.	J. H. Lansley, PH. D.	1	5	42	10	5			62
694	Hoboken	Private instruction	Augusta J. Sachs.	1				8			8
695	Jersey City	Jersey City Business College.	Fannie J. Mansley	1	6	30	17	13			66
696	....do	Private instruction	Martha B. Fraser.	1				1		1	2
697	....do	....do	Walter Pfeiffer	1	2	1					3
698	Millville	Young Men's Christian Association.	Ellsworth Vanaman.	1			17				17
699	Mount Holly	Mount Holly Academy.	Henry M. Walradt	1		2					2
700	Newark	Coleman National Business College.	Miss Minnie K. Wickert.	2	9	36					45
701	....do	New Jersey Business College.	Miss L. W. Blue	2			10	15			25
702	....do	Private instruction	C. W. Eakeley				2	1		1	4
703	....do	Women's Christian Association.	Ida C. Kennedy	2		25					25
704	Orange	Evening school of shorthand.	C. A. Robinson	1			2	2			4
705	Paterson	Paterson Classical Institute and Business College.	Charles F. Gokey.	2	12	18	12	18			60
706	....do	Private instruction	Geo. Oakley	1			6	1			7
707	Plainfield	....do	Charles A. Case	1			3	10			13
708	....do	....do	Lizette P. Harrison.	1		3					3
709	....do	....do	Miss Laura L. Runyon.	1		5					5
710	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Joseph A. Robinson.	1			31				31
711	Princeton	Private instruction	Herman S. Davis	1	6	10			1	3	20
712	....do	....do	J. S. Roddy	1	3	1					4
713	Rahway	....do	Wm. A. Ransom	1			7	2	2	2	13
714	Trenton	Trenton Business College.	Mrs. Ida M. Muse.	2	25	42	6	4	1	1	79

a For year 1890, 1891, 13 males received instruction; average attendance, 6.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Nov., 1889	22	Munson's phonography.	.....	20 lessons.	21	Membership in Association $2.	688
Sept., 1889	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	3 to 5 mos.	40	$15 per month	689
1885.....	*25	....do	Remington (1) ...	.....	40	.....	690
1887.....	50	Benn Pitman's and Moran's phonography.	Hammond (2)....	30 weeks..	40	$15.....	691
Sept., 1887	*100	Haven's phonography.	Remington (5) ...	6 months	43	$5 per month	692
1872.....	.....	Cross' shorthand .	Yost (10), Remington (2).	2 to 4 terms	40	$30 for term of 10 weeks.	693
Jan. 2, 1889	10	Burnz's phonography.	Remington	5 months .	....	$8 per month	694
Sept., 1887	99	Munson's phonography.	Hammond (1), Caligraph (1), Remington (8).	.....	42	$75 per year	695
1879.....	.....	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	.....	.....	....	50 cents per hour .	696
Sept., 1888	3	....do	.....	6 months .	52	75 cents per lesson.	697
Oct., 1888	.....	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	6 months .	....	Membership in Association ($5).	698
1886.....	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	.....	37	$350 (including board, fuel, and all expenses) for academic course.	699
1881.....	450	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond, and Crandall (12).	3 to 4 mos.	52	$40 for 4 months ..	700
1875.....	300	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	.....	52	$10 per quarter ...	701
.....	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington	1 year	....	$25 for course.....	702
Mar. 8, 1886	130	Munson's phonography.	Remington (6) ...	6 months .	40	$2 per week.....	703
Oct. 15, 1889	4	Scott-Browne's phonography.	None	.....	....	$50 for 6 months ..	704
Sept. 1, 1889	30	Benn Pitman's Graham's, and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Yost, 2.	6 months .	40	$50, stenographic course.	705
May, 1889	8	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	....do	52	$30, complete course	706
Nov. 10, 1889	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....do	About 5 months.	....	50 cents per lesson.	707
June 1, 1888	.....	....do	Remington and Hammond.	.....	....	$15 per quarter....	708
1884	.....	....do	Remington (1)...	6 months .	....	50 cents per lesson.	709
Dec., 1889	31	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	26 weeks..	26	Membership in Association, $2.	710
.....	.....	....do	Remington	40 lessons.	....	$30 for course.....	711
.....	.....	Scott Browne's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	712
Jan., 1883	15	....do	Caligraph (1)	6 to 9 mos.	52	$25 for 3 months private instruction; $10 for 3 months in class.	713
Sept., 1882	330	Munson's phonography.	Remington (4). Caligraph (1), Hammond (1.)	6 months .	42	$25 per quarter ...	714

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

[Estim

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of s			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	
	NEW YORK—con.							
784	Elmira	Warner's Business College.	Addie M. Robinson	1	....	....	....	
785	Fairfield	Fairfield Seminary	Frank L. Warne	2	15	10	....	
786	Fort Edward	Fort Edward Collegiate Institute.	Miss Mary Deyoe	1	....	*8	....	
787	do	Private instruction	Henry G. King	1	5	1	....	
788	do	do	E. M. Quackenbush, M. D.	1	3	2	1	
789	Fort Plain	Porter Business College of Clinton Liberal Institute.	F. H. Decker	1	....	....	....	
790	Geneva	Geneva Business College and Shorthand Institute.	Bertha Barnum	2	1	1	....	
791	Glens Falls	Private instruction	C. F. King	1	2	2	1	
792	Homer	do	Mrs. Florence Brush.	1	2	2	....	
793	Hornellsville	Hornellsville Business and Shorthand College.	Rose C. Williams	1	36	32	7	
794	Ithaca	Wyckoff's Phonographic Institute.	Mrs. M. A. Adsit	3	10	10	....	
795	Jamestown	Jamestown School of Phonography, Jamestown Business College.	J. E. McLean	1	5	25	....	
796	Johnstown	Private instruction	E. A. Garlock	1	....	....	10	
797	Kingston	Spencer's Business College.	B. H. Spencer	1	30	20	20	
798	Le Roy	Private instruction	O. W. Howe	2	6	9	....	
799	Lima	Eclectic Shorthand College, Genesee Wesleyan Seminary.	Frank A. Bateman	3	25	75	....	
800	Lockport	Private instruction	W. R. Culver	1	2	4	....	
801	do	Warren's College of Shorthand, Haven's College of Philadelphia.	E. L. Warren	2	8	16	6	
802	New Brighton, Staten Island	Brighton Heights Seminary.	Miss Charlotte A. Woodward.	1	1	2	1	
803	Newburg	Private instruction	Chas. A. Brockaway.	1	9	5	1	
804	do	do	S. Fred. Brown	1	1	....	....	
805	do	do	J. Thorne Ronk	1	....	....	1	
806	New Rochelle	do	Miss Grace E. Towndrow.	1	....	....	....	
806	New York [b]	Academy of the Holy Rosary.	Sister M. Eugenie	1	....	8	....	
807	New York, 141 East Twenty-third street.	Boys' Club of Calvary Parish Phonographic Class.	T. Channon Press	1	....	....	10	

a Total by mail, 49.

b Hon. John Jasper, superintendent of schools of New York City, states that sho
[illegible] can not be computed. Eleven teachers were employed in 1889-'90—Messrs.
[illegible] and instruction was given to 653 persons, 128 of whom were females. Various
[illegible] which consist of twenty-four weeks each in evening

Jan. 20, 1890	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yoe	[illegible]	[illegible] month	[illegible]
1889	6	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mar. 1, 1890	7	Pernin's short hand.	do	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
June 15, 1890	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
1882	138	do	Hammond, Remington.	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept., 1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
1880	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington, Hammond.	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
1888	*50	do	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond.	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
.....	.....	do	Remington.		[illegible]	[illegible]
1877	*1,200	do	Caligraph, Remington, Hammond.	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept. 8, 1884	500	do	Remington, Caligraph.	[illegible]	[illegible] month	[illegible]
1877	*400	Benn Pitman's phonography modified.	Remington	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do			[illegible]
Oct. 14, 1889	21	do	do		[illegible]	[illegible]
.....	.....	do	do	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
1886	17	Scott-Browne phonography.	Caligraph	[illegible]	[illegible] two	[illegible]
Mar. 1, 1890	[illegible]	Munson's phonography.			[illegible] pri.	7
1886	27	Osgoodby's phonography.	Remington, Smith.	[illegible]		[illegible]
1879	*140	Benn Pitman's phonography modified.	Caligraph	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible] 1887	43	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	[illegible]		
[illegible]	80	Graham's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	NEW YORK—con.							
803	New York	Cooper Union	Miss Mary E. Robbins.	1	....	50	....	...
804	do	Paine Uptown Business College.	.....	3	24	39	20	7
809	do	De La Salle Institute	Rev. Bro. Pompian	3	45	....	....	...
809	New York, 68 Wall street.	Fish's School of Shorthand.	James H. Fish	2	32	13	....	...
810	New York, Norfolk street.	East Side Evening High School.	Eugene Sheridan	1	....	....	62	..
811	New York, Eighty-seventh street.	Evening Grammar School, No. 37.	Isaac B. Ripinsky	1	....	....	40	..
812	New York, 42 First street.	Evening Grammar School, No. 79.	Chas. Schekeler	1	....	....	*50	..
813	New York, 124 West Thirtieth street.	Evening High School	Mark J. Kätz	....	....	....	175	..
814	New York, East Fifty-seventh street.	Female Senior Evening School, No. 59.	Abbie McClennen	1	....	....	....	6
815	New York	Female Stenographic and Typewriting Class, General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen of New York.	William L. Mason	1	....	....	....	6
816	New York and Newark, N. J.	Frank Harrison's Schools.	Frank Harrison	....	*117	*233	*17	*38
817	New York	German-American Stenographic Society, "Gabelsberger."	Jacob Marcus	1	....	....	....	...
818	New York, One hundred and twenty-fifth street.	Harlem Evening High School.	Matthew H. Tully	1	....	....	77	...
819	New York	Instruction by mail	Thos. S. Lewis	1	....	....	....	...
820	do	Kimball's School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	J. N. Kimball	1	300	20	....	...
821	do	La Salle Academy	Rev. Bro. Lucidius	4	52	....	....	...
822	New York, One hundred and thirty-first street.	Manhattan College	Rev. Bro. Eliphus	4	50	....	....	...
823	New York, West Thirty-second street.	Manhattan Business College.	Rev. Bro. Castoris	5	115	....	12	...
824	New York	Manhattan Working Girls' Club.	Frances F. Parrish	....	....	....	....	32
825	do	Mrs. B. A. Rushton's School of Typewriting and Stenography.	Miss Lydia Seymour.	1	3	45	....	...
826	do	New York School of Benn Pitman Phonography.	Misses L. and C. Alexander.	2	30	30	16	4

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1876	*1,200	Graham's phonography.	Remington (8)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$10 for 20 lessons, 20 for course in shorthand and typewriting.	740
		Fish's phonography.					741
Sept. 7, 1879		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (4)	3 years	40	Included in general tuition.	742
Jan. 17, 1890	35	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		6 months		$15	743
Oct. 1, 1889	*65	Benn Pitman's and Barnes's phonography.	Remington (3)	44 weeks	44		744
Nov. 1, 1886	152	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (4)	6 months		$10 per month	745
Feb. 10, 1888	334	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (22), Hammond (2), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	9 months	36	$13 day; $9 evening for term of 3 months, shorthand and typewriting.	746
1887	200	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 to 8 mos.		$12 per month	747
Oct. 1889	6	Lindsley's stachygraphy.	None	6 months		Free	748
		Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months to 1 year.			749
July, 1887	40	White's phonography.	Remington (1)	4 to 7 mos.		$75	750
Jan. 1, 1890	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	6 months	40	$20	751
1886	*30	Munson's phonography.	Remington (5)	3 to 6 mos.		$40, stenography and typewriting.	752
1878	2,500	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond (30).	3 years	42	No extra charge for stenography.	753
Oct. 1, 1887	200	do	Caligraph (2)		42	Free	754
Sept., 1872	300	Benn Pitman's, White's, and Munson's phonography.	Remington	2 years	40	Included in college course; 50 cents per lesson for evening students.	755
1885	*400	Graham's phonography.	Remington (4), Caligraph (2), Hammond (2).	3 years	28	Free	756
Oct., 1889	23	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond, Hall, and Yost (30).	2 years	40		757
Sept., 1889	41	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Crandall (1)	10 months		Free	758
Sept., 1886	200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Hammond, and Caligraph (6).	2 years	40		759
Sept. 2, 1889	90	do	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).		40	Free	760
Mar., 1885		Benn Pitman's phonography; also Graham's and Munson's phonography when required.	Remington, Caligraph, and Yost (12).	3 months		$50	761
1873		Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (25).	7 to 10 mos.	40	$30 per term of 10 weeks.	762
1875	*1,500	Graham's phonography.	Remington (4).	10 to 12 mos	22	Membership in association, $2.	763

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in

[Esti

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number o		
					Day.		Ev in
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	NEW YORK—con.						
827	New York	New York School of Phonography.	Mrs. Eliza B. Burnz.a	2	1	9	
828	do	Packard's Business College and School of Shorthand.	Charles M. Miller.	4	40	160	
829	New York (223 East Fourteenth street).	Private instruction	Alexander Cooper.	2			*1
830	New York (120 East Ninety-third street).	do	S. Y. Couldock	1			2
831	New York (613 Wilt street).	do	Edith E. Fisher	1			1
832	New York	do	A. Leitch	1			
833	do	do	D. P. Lindsley	1	7	2	
834	New York (120 East Eighty-sixth street).	do	Jacob Marcus	1			
835	New York	do	William L. Mason.	c1	1	5	
836	New York (353 West Twenty-eighth street.)	do	Mrs. L. J. Stancliffe.		3	17	
837	New York (157 East Forty-ninth street).	do	Dr. Rudolf Tombo.	1	3		
838	New York	do	Chas. A. Wilhoft	1			
839	do	School of Phonography and Typewriting. Paine's Business College.	James A. Collins	2	6	26	3
840	New York (329 Fifth avenue).	School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	Frances E. Parrish	2			
841	New York (Sixty-third street).	Senior Evening School, No. 74.	Walter Fox	1			6
842	New York (239 East Houston street).	Senior Female Evening School.	Miss Lydia Seymour.	2			
843	New York	Union School of Stenography. Mary F. Seymour's typewriting office.	Miss Mary F. Seymour.	3		65	
844	do	Walworth's Stenographic College, Walworth's Business College.	C. A. Walworth	3	25	50	2
845	do	Walworth's Stenographic Institute.e	E. R. Denmeade	2			
846	New York (Twenty-third street).	Young Men's Christian Association.	Wm. H. Morse	1			15
847	New York	Young Women's Christian Association.	Mrs. Eliza B. Burnz.	2		83	
848	Niagara Falls	Private instruction	Jane E. Murray	1			
849	Olean	Westbrook Commercial College.	W. G. Gamble	2	10	6	

a The free evening classes in shorthand at the Cooper Union, taught by Mrs. Bu
ed in 1869. From 1876 to December, 1888, instruction was given to 1,404 persons.
begun in the fall of 1872, and male students were admitted in 1874.
b Since January, 1885.
c Sometimes 2.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Feb., 1890	20	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	40	$1 to association	764
Sept., 1888	*50	Duployan shorthand.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	5 months	40	$5	765
Oct. 1, 1889	50	Cross's shorthand.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond and Smith (6).	3 to 5 mos.	52	$75 for course; $25 for 3 months.	766
1887	.....	McKee's shorthand.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond, and Smith.	Average 4 months.	52	$75 full course	767
.....	*200	Graham's and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (4)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$25 to $75 for course.	768
June 18, 1889	68	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1), Hammond (1), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	5 to 8 mos.	52	$50 full course; $40 6 months.	769
1879	19	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 months	....	$10 per quarter	770
.....	.....	Barnes's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	2 years	40	$50 per annum	771
Jan. 1, 1876	.....	Benn Pitman's, Graham's, Munson's, and Bishop's phonography.	Remington (4), Caligraph (1), Hammond (1), Yost (1).	6 to 10 mos.	52	$50 full course; $10 per month.	772
1880	(a)	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	40 lessons	20	Membership in association.	773
July, 1880	500	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph	4 weeks at Chautauqua.	....	$10 per course of 20 lessons; $12 per course of 20 lessons by mail.	774
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)	1 year	39	$39 to $78	775
Jan., 1890	1	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)	2 years	38	$20 to $48	776
Oct. 1, 1889	3	do	Remington (1), International (1).	6 months	....	50 cents per lesson; $2 per week.	777
July, 1887	3	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	do	24	$10 per month	778
Oct., 1889	15	Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	do	16	Free	779
Nov., 1888	138	Graham's, Benn Pitman's, Isaac Pitman's, Munson's and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (6), Caligraph (1).	6 months average.	52	$10 per month	780
Mar., 1887	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington	.....	52	Free	781
Sept. 1, 1884	45	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$50 for 6 months; $30 for 3 months.	782
Sept. 1, 1880	300	Munson's, Graham's, Isaac Pitman's, and Bishop's phonography.	Hammond and Remington (8).	6 months or more.	51	$50 for course, or $10 per month.	783

a About 15 each year.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Evening.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	NEW YORK—con.							
850	Oswego	Chaffee's Phonographic Institute.	W. G. Chaffee	3	*40	*40		
851	do	Lavere's Shorthand College.	H. S. Lavere					
852	Peekskill	Peekskill Military Academy.	Chas. T. Cragin	1	9			
853	Pike	Pike Seminary	Marietta Merville	1	3	3		
854	Port Henry	Union Free School and Academy.	Eliza C. Drury	1	9	7		
855	Poughkeepsie	School of Stenography and Typewriting. Eastman Business College.	Miss Julia Blanchard.	3	*125	*50		
856	Randolph	Chamberlain Institute.	J. T. Edwards		3			
857	Rochester	Eclectic Shorthand College. Taylor's Business College.	D. J. Finlay	1				
858	do	Osgoodby School of Stenography.	W. W. Osgoodby	3				
859	do	Private instruction	—— Bradstreet	1			3	
860	do	Rochester Business University.	Mrs. L. A. Kane	2	18	62	5	
861	do	Rochester Stenographic School.	Mrs. M. C. Churchill.		1	15	2	
862	do	Shorthand and Typewriting Institute.	Gertrude C. Blackall.	1	2	16	1	
863	do	Shorthand Technic Institute.	M. Jeanette Ballantyne.	2		45		
864	do	Underhill's College of Phonography. Underhill's Business College.	B. S. Underhill	2	47	107	15	2
865	Rome	St. Peters' Academy		1		12		
866	do	Walworth's Shorthand School.	E. H. Walworth	1			8	
867	Saratoga Springs	Young Men's Christian Association.	Nelson R. Briggs	1			21	
868	Seneca Falls	Private instruction	Fred. W. DeMott	1			6	
869	do	School of stenography.	Anna M. Davis and Harriet E. Proudfoot.	2		9		
870	Shelby Center	Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor, First Baptist Church.	Rev. Napoleon Smith.	1			7	
871	Suspension Bridge	Private instruction	Miss Minnie E. Oatman.	1				
872	Syracuse	do	Miss M. G. Ham	2	*20	*30	*5	*1
873	Tottenville	do	Rev. S. V. Robinson.	1	5	1		
874	Troy	Christian Brother's Academy (commercial department).	Rev. Bro. Arnold	4	100			
875	do	St. Mary's Academy	Rev. Bro. Edward	3	86			
876	do	Troy School of Shorthand. Troy Business College.	Miss Cornelia L. Payne.	1	24	37	10	1

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1882	.....	Bishop's, Pitman's, and Graham's phonography.	Remington (4), National (1).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$25 for 4 months	784
Sept., 1885	200	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington, Yost, and Smith (6).	1 year	39 or 40	$200 per year (boarding school).	785
Sept., 1889	*8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1), Caligraph (1).	1 year	36	$36 per year	786
Jan. 1, 1889	6	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	3 months	13	$12	787
Mar., 1882	*50	....do	Remington and Caligraph.	....do	52	$25 for 3 months	788
Sept. 9, 1887	.....	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington	1 year	39	$10 per term	789
1885	12	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	3 months	40	$15 per quarter	790
Jan., 1885	25	....do	Hammond (1)	3 to 6 mos.	....	50 cents per lesson	791
1882	10	Graham's phonography	Caligraph	8 months	....	$10 for 20 lessons	792
Nov. 1, 1888	100	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Hammond (2), Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$50 for course	793
1867	.....	Graham's phonography.	Remington (10)	5 to 10 mos	....	$30 for 3 months	794
Jan. 1, 1889	50	Graham's, Munson's, Isaac Pitman's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (4)	6 months	40	$50	795
Jan., 1890	10	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph	.....	....	25 cents per lesson	796
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Hammond, and Caligraph (5).	6 months	44	$30 per quarter	797
Jan., 1886	*100	....do	Crandall	....do	....	50 cents per lesson, $35 for course.	798
1886	250	Cross's shorthand	Caligraph (4), Remington (2), Yost (2).	Average, 3 mos.	39	$30 for 3 months	799
Jan. 1, 1881	75	Munson's phonography.	Remington (4)	6 months	....	$25	800
Feb., 1890	36	Haven's phonography.	Remington (3)	3 months	52	$30	801
1888	.....	Burnz's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	802
Oct., 1888	27	Graham's phonography.	None	.....	52	30 cents per lesson for corresponding style.	803
.....	.....	Graham's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	804
.....	.....	....do	.....	3 months	....	$15 for 3 months	805
.....	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	.....	....	$7 per month for 2 lessons a week.	805½
Sept. 18, 1889	.....	Towndrow's stenography.	Remington	4 months	....	.....	806
Nov., 1889	10	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	3 months	35	Free	807

duced in evening high schools in 1868 and in other evening schools in 1888. The total number Fox, Katz, Ripinsky, Schekeler, Sheridan, and Tully, and Misses Hawthorn, McClennen, and Seyhand were taught. No typewriters are used and no branches taught in connection with shorthand. of twenty weeks in other evening schools.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

[Estim

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	
	NEW YORK—con.							
877	Utica	School of Stenography and Typewriting.	Mrs. N. M. Schuyler.	2	4	38	....	
878	....do	do	C. E. Simmons	....	....	....	2	
879	....do	Utica Business College.	Miss Etta M. Davis.	1	10	21	4	
880	....do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Miss E. J. Cooke	1	....	....	20	
881	Watertown	Private instruction	Geo. Adams	1	1	3	....	
882	Watertown a	do	J. H. Calkins	1	....	....	7	
883	Watertown	do	Willis H. Porter	1	....	....	....	
884	Westchester	New York Catholic Protectory (male department).	Brother James	1	40	....	....	
885	....do	Sacred Heart Academy.	Rev. Bro. Landowald, F. S. C.	1	18	....	....	
	NORTH CAROLINA.							
886	Asheville	Asheville Female College.	Miss E. M. Henderson.	1	....	7	....	
887	....do	Oakland Institute	Miss Flora F. Lowe.	1	....	5	....	
888	Belmont	St. Mary's College	Rev. Julius Pohl, O. S. B.	1	26	....	....	
889	Charlotte	Private instruction	R. B. Babington	1	4	2	....	
890	do	do	Miss Anna L. Twelvetrees.	1	....	....	12	
891	Conover	Concordia College	J. G. Schaid	1	7	....	....	
892	Durham	Durham graded schools.	Miss Nina Gibbs	1	10	40	....	
893	do	Private instruction	M. W. Reed	....	....	....	4	
894	Hickory	do	Miss Julia Wheeler.	1	....	....	6	
895	Oak Ridge	Oak Ridge Institute	Thos. E. Whitaker	1	29	1	....	
896	Raleigh	Private instruction	E. A. Johnson	1	6	....	6	
897	do	Raleigh Business College.	J. E. Mathony	2	19	5	11	
898	do	Smithsonian Shorthand Institute.	M. M. Smith	1	5	1	14	
899	Salem	Salem Female Academy.	Miss Emma A. Lehman.	2	....	18	....	
900	Salisbury	Private instruction	Miss A. S. Rutledge.	1	....	1	3	
901	Summerville	Summerville High School.	C. C. Plummer	2	5	....	....	
902	Wallace	Private instruction	F. A. Milledge	1	....	....	....	
903	Wilmington	Cape Fear Academy.	Washington Catlett.	1	7	....	1	

a Some of these pupils were in Pulaski, N. Y.

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e indicated

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

ls.		Total.	Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charg
	3	49	March, 1889	49	Graham's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (4).	6 months	52	$10 pa
	1	9	1886	9	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Yost (1)	3 to 6 mos.	52	Lesso to 1 Per tion 25c.
	....	37	1884	..	Munson's phonography.	Remington (5)	6 months.	43	$30 fo
	....	20	Feb. 12, 1890	20	Scott-Browne's phonography.			12	Meml soci
	....	4	1883	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.				$6 for
	....	11			Graham's phonography, modified.	Remington	4 to 8 mos	....	50 cen per
	....	10	1875	10	Munson's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 to 12 mos.	....	$1 per
	....	40	May 1, 1888	5	Benn Pitman's followed by Graham's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington (3).	2 years	46	Free. mar
	....	18	Sept. 1, 1884	100	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (8)	3 years	40	
	....	7	Sept. 10, 1889	15	Munson's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	2 years	40	$30 pa
	....	5	Sept., 1889	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.				
	....	26	1882	130	Barnes's phonography.	Remington (2)	1 school year.	42	$10
	....	8	Apr., 1890	6	Pernin's shorthand.		4 months	....	50 cen
	....	17	1888	22	Benn Pitman's phonography.		30 lessons for principles.	....	$10 fo in c
	....	7	Oct., 1889	7	Pernin's shorthand.	None	3 months	36	Nomi
	....	50	Sept. 3, 1889	55	Cross's shorthand.	Remington and Hammond.	10 months.	39	Free.
	....	4	1885	46	Haven's phonography.	Remington			$35 a tent
	....	6	Sept., 1889	6					
	....	30	Aug., 1889	30	Haven's phonography	Remington (2)	3½ to 10 months	40	$35, in wri
	....	12	1889	6	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 months	....	75 cen
	4	52	Jan. 1, 1890	35	Barnes's phonography.	Remington (4)	6 to 8 mos	52	$15 fo and and ing
	6	30	1889	27	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (2), Remington (1)	6 months	25	$25 pa
	....	18	1885	71	Munson's phonography.	Hammond (2), Crandall (1)	1 to 2 yrs	40	$20 pa
	....	5		....	Longley's phonography.				
	....	3	Jan. 6, 1890	3	Benn Pitman's phonography.		5 months	40	$5 for
	....	5		4	Scovil's shorthand		6 months	....	$5 for
	....	6	1888	9	Pernin's shorthand.		3 to 6 mos.	40	$2.50 mon

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in

[Est

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number c		
					Day.		Ev h
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	NORTH CAROLINA —continued.						
904	Wilmington	Private instruction	E. D. McIlhenny	1	41	2	...
905	Wilson	do	Miss Mary C. Ruffin.	2	4	1	...
906	Winston	do	Mrs. W. W. Gladstone.	1	...	2	...
	NORTH DAKOTA.						
907	Dickinson	do	Miss Hattie G. Davidson.	1	...	2	...
908	do	do	W. A. McCloy	1	...	...	
909	Grand Forks	do	J. H. Vosburgh	1	6	6	...
910	Lamoure	do	C. H. Kermatt	1	...	...	
	OHIO.						
911	Ada	Ohio Normal University.	S. P. Axline	3	54	36	...
912	Akron	Akron Business College.	O. S. Warner	1	...	2	...
913	Alliance	Mount Union College.	L. B. Matthias	1	13	10	...
914	do	Private instruction	Geo. H. Sweet	...	...	...	2
915	Ashland	Ashland Business College.	.....	1	2	15	...
916	Athens	Private instruction	C. E. Browne	1	*a* 4	*a* 21	...
917	Barnesville	do	G. H. Kemp, M. D.	1	...	...	...
918	Bartlett	Ohio Normal College.	A. W. Ellis	2	8	3	...
919	Bellefontaine	Private instruction	David L. Petty	1	2	17	...
920	do	do	Mrs. Harvey Radcliffe.	1	3	16	
921	Bellevue	Parochial school	Sisters of St. Francis.	1	4	...	...
922	Belmont Ridge	Private instruction	M. V. Danford	1	...	...	
923	Cambridge	do	F. G. Steele	1	...	...	
924	Canfield	Northeastern Ohio Business College.	C. B. Magill	1	9	6	...
925	Canton	Canton Business College.	B. F. Faust	2	9	25	
926	Centre Belpre	Private instruction	Jesse J. M. Suit	1	...	1	...
927	Cincinnati	Church's School of Phonography and Typewriting.	Mrs. L. T. Church	2	17	32	...
928	do	Cincinnati School of Phonography.	Miss A. R. Campbell.	3	30	50	1
929	do	Longley's School of Phonography.	J. M. Longley	1	...	20	

a Some of these pupils were in Jacksonville and Tampa, Fla.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1870	*b* 245	Burnz's phonography.	Remington	6 months	....	$100 per course	827
1887	.....	Munson's phonography.	Remington (40)	About 6 months.	43	$45 for ten weeks	828
.....	*33	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	6 months	52	$2 per month	829
Jan., 1889	23	Bishop's phonography.	Remington	9 mos. to 1 year.	52	$25	830
1885	3	Burnz's phonography.	....do	6 months	....	50 cents per lesson	831
Oct., 1889	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	4 months	....	$3 for 10 lessons	832
Jan. 1, 1890	.....	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Hammond, Caligraph.	....do	52	$40 for 4 months	833
.....	.....	Gabelsberger's stenography.	Hammond	.....	....	.....	834
1883	37	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)	4 mos. to 1 year.	....	$60 entire course, shorthand and typewriting.	835
Sept. 1, 1888	*75	Burnz's phonography.	Remington (1)	5 to 6 mos.	....	$1 per week	836
.....	.....	Gabelsberger-Richter stenography.	Remington	6 months	....	$1 per lesson	837
June, 1888	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	....do	....	50 cents per lesson	838
1885	172	Munson's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	80 to 120 lessons.	52	$20 for 40 lessons	839
1883	.....	Burnz's phonography.	Caligraph (6)	6 months	40	$75 for 6 months	840
Dec. 4, 1888	113	....do	.....	.....	(*d*)	.....	841
Oct., 1888	*200	....do	.....	6 to 8 mos.	18	Free	842
1880	*1,000	Benn Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Yost, and Crandall.	6 to 10 mos	48	$70 six mos. course shorthand, $95 complete course shorthand and typewriting.	843
Sept., 1871	1,850	Munson's phonography.	Remington (3), Caligraph (4), Hammond (2), Yost (1).	6 months	52	$75	844
About 1870	.....	....do	Remington and Caligraph.	About 6 months.	....	$75 for six months.	845
1874	*1,800	....do	Remington (10)	15 months.	27	Membership in association $5 per year.	846
Jan., 1880	*425	Burnz's phonography.	Remington (17)	40 weeks	40	.....	847
July, 1889	7	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph	36 lessons	....	$5 for 12 lessons	848
1884	72	Graham's phonography and the stenograph.	Remington and Caligraph.	.....	52	$50 for 6 months	849

d 90 nights.

e This institution has been succeeded by the Munson Stenographic Institute, John W. Crawford principal teacher. Instruction for the year 1890-'91 was given to 86 persons, including 9 by mail; system taught, Munson's phonography; writing machines, 11; tuition, $12 per month.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	NEW YORK—con.										
850	Oswego	Chaffee's Phonographic Institute.	W. G. Chaffee	3	*40	*40			*125	*125	*330
851	do	Lavere's Shorthand College.	H. S. Lavere								
852	Peekskill	Peekskill Military Academy.	Chas. T. Cragin	1	9						9
853	Pike	Pike Seminary	Marietta Merville	1	3	3					6
854	Port Henry	Union Free School and Academy.	Eliza C. Drury	1	9	7					16
855	Poughkeepsie	School of Stenography and Typewriting. Eastman Business College.	Miss Julia Blanchard.	3	*125	*50					175
856	Randolph	Chamberlain Institute.	J. T. Edwards		3						3
857	Rochester	Eclectic Shorthand College, Taylor's Business College.	D. J. Finlay	1							13
858	do	Osgoodby School of Stenography.	W. W. Osgoodby	3							
859	do	Private instruction	—— Bradstreet	1			3				3
860	do	Rochester Business University.	Mrs. L. A. Kane	2	18	62	5	9			94
861	do	Rochester Stenographic School.	Mrs. M. C. Churchill.		1	15	2	1			19
862	do	Shorthand and Typewriting Institute.	Gertrude C. Blackall.	1	2	16	1	2			21
863	do	Shorthand Technic Institute.	M. Jeanette Ballantyne.	2		45		3			48
864	do	Underhill's College of Phonography, Underhill's Business College.	B. S. Underhill	2	47	107	15	25	30	15	239
865	Rome	St. Peters' Academy		1		12					12
866	do	Walworth's Shorthand School.	E. H. Walworth	1			8	8			16
867	Saratoga Springs	Young Men's Christian Association.	Nelson R. Briggs	1			21				21
868	Seneca Falls	Private instruction	Fred. W. DeMott	1			6				6
869	do	School of stenography.	Anna M. Davis and Harriet E. Proudfoot.	2		9					9
870	Shelby Center	Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor, First Baptist Church.	Rev. Napoleon Smith.	1			7	9			16
871	Suspension Bridge.	Private instruction	Miss Minnie E. Oatman.	1							6
872	Syracuse	do	Miss M. G. Ham	2	*20	*30	*5	*15	1	*4	75
873	Tottenville	do	Rev. S. V. Robinson.	1	5	1					6
874	Troy	Christian Brother's Academy (commercial department).	Rev. Bro. Arnold	4	100						100
875	do	St. Mary's Academy	Rev. Bro. Edward	3	86						86
876	do	Troy School of Shorthand, Troy Business College.	Miss Cornelia L. Payne.	1	24	37	10	10		1	82

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
About 1870..	Over 2,000	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (45), Remington (14).	6 to 12 mos.	52	$10 per month	850
.....	.....	....do	Remington	3 to 6 mos.	52	....do	851
Sept., 1889	.....	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	36	No extra charge for shorthand.	852
1888.....	40	Graham's phonography.	Remington	.....	40	$15.....	853
Jan. 6, 1890	16	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph, Remington.	6 mos.....	40	Free.....	854
Sept., 1885	*500	Graham's phonography; also Benn or Isaac Pitman's, or any standard system.	Remington, Hammond, Caligraph, Crandall, and Yost.	4 mos. to 1 year.	52	$12 a month, $50 for 6 months.	855
1880.....	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	.....	40	$10 per term	856
June 1, 1890	13	Cross's shorthand.	Yost (1), Caligraph (1).	10 to 18 weeks.	52	$30 for 3 months ..	857
July, 1884	2,843	Osgoodby's phonography.	.....	.....	....	$12, including books.	858
1884.....	8 or 10	....do	Remington	6 mos. for principles.	....	Nominal.....	859
Sept., 1887	160	....do	Remington (9), Yost (6), Caligraph (1).	20 weeks..	40	$35 for 10 weeks, $60 for 20 weeks.	860
Oct. 12, 1885	200	....do	Caligraph and Remington.	4 to 6 mos.	52	$10 per month	861
Feb. 1, 1890	21	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (4) ...	.....	49	$10 a month, $25 for 3 months.	862
Oct., 1886	70	Osgoodby's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	3 to 9 mos.	52	$10 for first 4 months, $5 per month thereafter.	863
Jan. 10, 1887	263	Haven's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (15).	3 mos.....	52	$40.....	864
1889.....	12	Pernin's shorthand	.....	.....	44	.....	865
Aug. 1, 1889	19	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	120 lessons	28	$60 for course.....	866
Jan. 15, 1890	21	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	36 lessons..	18	Free.....	867
Apr. 16, 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	40 weeks..	40	$10 for 20 lessons..	868
May 19, 1890	9	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (2) ...	6 to 9 mos.	....	$10 per month	869
1889.....	16	McKee's shorthand.	.....	.....	52	Free.....	870
June 1, 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Smith	.....	....	50 cents per lesson	871
1885.....	200 to 300	Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Smith (2).....	About 6 months.	48	$45 in advance....	872
.....	.....	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	873
1860.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	3 years....	40	$40.....	874
1878.....	500	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington, Hammond, and Caligraph (5).	2 years....	40	$10 per quarter....	875
July, 1884	304	Munson's phonography.	Remington (8), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	6 months .	50	$30 for 13 weeks ..	876

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

[Estim

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of s			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	OHIO—continued.							
955	Dayton	St. Mary's Institute	John A. Walden	4	45	....	....	.
956	Delaware	National Pen Art Hall and Business College.	H. K. Hawk	2	80	29	....	.
957	....do	Ohio Wesleyan University.	Everett McCaskill	1	20	12	....	.
958	East Liverpool	Sant's Commercial School.	John Sant	2	4	....	9	
959	Fairview	Private instruction	D. F. G. Hall	1	20	10	22	
960	Fayette	Fayette Normal University.	E. T. Pierce	3	3	....	....	.
961	Fessburg	Fessburg High Schools.	George M. Hiatt	1	18	12	....	.
962	Findlay	Findlay Business College.	Miss Alice V. Smaltz.	2	8	11	....	.
963	....do	Findlay College School of Shorthand, Findlay College.	H. J. Minnich	1	....	....	....	.
964	Fostoria	North American Normal School, Music, and Business College.	J. R. Wright	2	15	20	2	.
965	Geneva	Geneva Normal School, commercial department.	W. Douglas	1	7	18	....	.
966	Georgetown	Private instruction	Anna E. Dudley	1	2	7	....	.
967	....do	....do	R. A. O'Hara	1	....	....	....	.
968	Germano	Private instruction	O. B. Miller	1	15	11	....	.
969	Germantown	Artual Business School of Twin Valley College.	Miss Eva Kendall	1	3	5	2	.
970	Hamilton	Ohio Commercial College.	Miss Anna K. Janser.	1	3	14	5	
971	Harrison	Common school	J. W. Golladay	1	5	3	....	.
972	Hiram	Hiram College. Private instruction.	Geo. H. Rymers	1	14	2	....	.
973	Hopedale	Buchanan Business Institute.	William Buchanan	1	11	9	....	.
974	....do	Normal College	R. R. Birney	1	26	11	....	.
975	Ironton	Private instruction	Miss E. R. Withrow.	1	1	4	....	
976	Lancaster	Crippen's School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	L. C. Crippen	2	93	41	....	.
977	....do	Private instruction.	T. Hartley Smith	1	2	....	2	.
978	Lebanon	....do	Miss Mary L. Frost.	1	3	17	..	
979	....do	School of Phonography and Typewriting, National Normal University.	Julia Akers	1	20	25	....	.
980	McConnelsville	Private instruction	Mrs. Georgia Glass.	1	1	5	1	
981	Madisonville	....do	Clara B. Dinkleman.	1	3	7	3	

United States

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

s are indicated by an asterisk (*).

lents. By mail. Male.	Female.	Total	Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.
		45	1883	*100	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).		40
		100	1882	880	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (6)	3 months	
		32	Sept. 1886	116	Cross's shorthand and Benn Pitman's and Moran's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	12 months	36
		17	Sept., 1888	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	6 months	26
8	1	69	Jan. 1, 1889	49	do		4 months	40
8	4	15	1888	19	Anderson's shorthand typewriter.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1), Hammond (1).	About 12 weeks.	40
		30	Oct 1 1889	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	About 9 months.	
		19	Sept 1 1889	19	do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1), Rapid (1)	6 months	42
8	7	15	1890		do	Caligraph (3), Remington (1).		
1	2	50	Oct. 15, 1888		Cross's shorthand and Munson's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 months.	49
2		27	1885		McKee's shorthand.	Remington (1)	4 months	39
		9	1887	25	Pitman's phonography.	Remington	3 to 6 mos.	53
			June, 1887	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph		
8	2	26	1890	60	do		18 months	
		10	1887	13	Perrin's shorthand.	Hammond (4), Hall. (1).		40
1		21	1887		Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington	20 weeks	
		8	Feb., 1889	8	do			
3		19	Sept 1, 1887	81	Scott Browne's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 months	
		20	1887	75	Benn Pitman's phonography	do	do	48
		37	1874		do	Remington (1)	10 months	40
1		6	Feb. 1889	19	do			
12	9	135			Lindsley's stenography.	Hammond	3 to 4 mos.	
		4	Mar 1 1890		Cross' shorthand	Caligraph (1)	3 months	
1		21	Oct. 1888	15	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph	6 to 8 mos	
		45	1870	100	do	Remington and Caligraph (3).	30 weeks	50
1		8	June 1 1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)		11
1	1	16	Oct 19 1887	21	do	do		44

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the U

[Estimate

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	OHIO—continued.							
182	Mansfield	Ohio Business College.	Mrs. H. E. Hall	1	14	25	....	....
183	Massillon	Massillon Business College and Normal School.	J. M. Leese	2	9	7	5	7
184	do	Private instruction	Richard Johnson	1	....	....	1	6
185	Mount Vernon	do	George Flint	2	*25	*25	....	....
186	Newark	Beeney's Commercial College.	Mrs. G. F. Richards.	2	....	6	....	..
187	do	Private instruction	S. E. Swartz	1	4	3	3	
188	New Athens	Franklin College	J. M. Thompson	1	13	5	....	..
189	New Hagerstown.	New Hagerstown Academy.	J. Howard Brown	1	(25)		....	..
190	New Lexington	Private instruction	H. M. Tussing	1	5	1	....	..
191	New Richmond	Mann's School of Shorthand and Typewriting. The Eclectic Normal and Business University.	E. G. Mann	1	40	20	15	..
192	do	New Richmond Private High School.	Mrs. W. A. Davis	2	3	7	....	....
193	Oberlin	Private instruction	Jacob Burgner	1	3	2	....	....
194	do	School of shorthand, Oberlin Business College.	Miss Nellie Wood	1	12	8	....	....
195	Oxford	Private instruction, Oxford College.	Lizzie S. Smith	1	....	7	....	....
196	Piqua (and Dayton).	Shorthand Institute, Piqua and Dayton Commercial Colleges.	C. E. Beck	2	....	4	....	3
197	Rainbow	Private instruction	Mrs. Lillian Tidd Wood.	1	1	4	1	2
198	St. Clairsville	do	J. H. Henderson	1	13	17	....	....
199	Salem	do	Marie Pauline Cattelle.	1	3	7	....	....
200	do	do	Mrs. Nettie Gasley.	1	....	....	1	2
201	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	W. W. Hole	1	....	....	15	..
202	Sandusky	do	Mrs. M. N. Evans	1	....	....	6	6
203	Scio	Scio College	W. J. Holt	1	16	6	....	....
204	Sidney	School of Phonography and Typewriting.	Mrs. C. S. Emmons	1	2	4	3	5
205	Springfield	Private instruction	I. A. Barnes	2	....	....	10	....
206	do	Willis College of Shorthand.	F. W. Willis	3	*125	*125	....	....
207	Tiffin	Heidelberg Business College and Institute of Shorthand.	A. G. Barone	1	11	9	....	1
208	do	Ursuline College	Ursuline Sisters	2	....	4	....	....
209	Toledo	"Best" Shorthand School. Tri-State Business College.	Mr. and Mrs. J. W. Melchior.	3	75	125	15	10

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
May, 1884	*75	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	3 or 4 mos.		$10 per month	904
Mar., 1890	5	Munson's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	52	$40 for course	905
Feb., 1890	2	Burnz's phonography.	Remington (1)	5 to 8 mos.		$5 per month	906
	2	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington	3 months		50 cents per lesson	907
1887		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 mos. minimum.		$1 per lesson	908
1886	18	Graham's phonography.	Remington		52	$1 per lesson, personal; 50 cents by mail.	909
1860		Benn Pitman's phonography.	None			See remarks	910
Aug. 13, 1878	*600	Graham's, Pitman's, and Munson's phonography, and Cross's and McKee shorthand.	Caligraph and Remington (6).	6 to 9 mos.	49	$25 per course	911
1873		Munson's phonography.	Smith (1)	6 months	28	$20 for 3 months	912
About 1865		Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	do	48	$28 for course	913
Aug. 21, 1888	46	do	Caligraph (2)	2 terms	52	$6 for 24 lessons	914
Nov., 1888	25	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (1), Hammond (1).	30 weeks	48	$35 for course	915
1889	*25	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph	3 to 6 mos.		$10 per month	916
1889	3	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do				917
1889	11	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Hammond (1)	5 months	40	$7 per term	918
Sept., 1888	24	Graham's phonography.	Remington, Yost, and Caligraph.	First course 6 months.		$30	919
Feb., 1887	27	Munson's phonography.	do			$5 for 20 lessons	920
		Benn Pitman's phonography.					921
May, 1889	7	do		8 wks. to 3 mos. for corresponding style.		$5 for 2 months	922
Jan., 1888	10	do				25 cents per lesson.	923
Sept., 1888	34	Graham's & Munson's phonography and Cross's and McKee's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)	20 weeks	40	$25	924
1880		Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (4)	5 months	52	$7 per month; $30 scholarship.	925
		Benn Pitman's phonography.				Free	926
Feb., 1883	326	do	Remington (6), Caligraph (2).	4 months	52	$60 for complete course.	927
Sept., 1875		do	Remington (15)	6 months		$15 one month; $40 three months; $75 six months.	928
		Longley's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 months		$45	929

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the l

[Estimates

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stud			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	OHIO—continued.							
10	Toledo	Steadman Shorthand School, Steadman Business College.	John J. Whetsel.	2	10	9	2	2
11	...do	Toledo Business College.	J. R. Skelley	2	35	60	15	10
12	Troy	Private instruction	C. F. Grosvenor	1	2	2		
13	Tupper's Plains	Tupper's Plains Academy.	M. Bowers					
14	Urbana	St. Mary's Parochial School.	Sisters of Mercy	2	2	2		
15	Wauseon	Northwestern Normal and Collegiate Institute.	C. L. Goll	1	*32	*18		
16	Westerville	Otterbein University	Tressa M. Maxwell.	1	10	6		
17	West Farmington.	Campbell's school of shorthand and type writing, Farmington College.	Homer W. Campbell.	1	4	28		
18	Wooster	Bixler's College of Shortland, Bixler's Business College.	Mrs. A. J. Dever.	1	9	15		
19	...do	University of Wooster.	H. F. Allison	1	4			
20	Xenia	O. S. and S. O. Home Shorthand School.	Miss M. G. Igler.	1	12	23		
21	Yellow Springs.	Antioch College	F. G. Strickland	1	3	1		
22	Youngstown	Actual Business College.	W. Douglas	3	3	6	2	1
23	...do	Johnston School of Shorthand; also private instruction.	B. O. Eddy, M. L. Johnston, Lulu Mackey.	4	3	37	2	5
24	Zanesville	Private instruction	J. D. Fisher	1			4	4
25	Youngstown	Steiner's Shorthand College; Steiner's Business College.	Miss Lizzie R. Corin.	1	16	21	2	6
26	Zanesville	Zanesville Business College.	Emilie Saumenig	2	11	25		
	OKLAHOMA TERRITORY.							
27	Frisco	Private instruction	M. A. Smedley	1		2		
	OREGON.							
28	Hillsboro	Private instruction	W. A. Newell	1			4	2
29	Philomath	Philomath College	Henry Shenk	1	1	1		
30	Portland	Bishop Scott Academy	Hattie Z. Sampson	1	8			
31	do	Holmes Business College.	G. Holmes	3	120	180		
32	...do	Portland Business College.	Miss Etta E. Moore	3	15	50		
33	...do	Studies of shorthand	Mrs. L. Bronson Salmon.	1	9	28	5	25

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1880		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 months		$55	930
		do	Caligraph	8 months			931
Oct. 12, 1888	35	do	Caligraph and Remington (3).	6 months		$5 per month	932
		do				75 cents per lesson.	933
	12	do	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	Variable		$1 per lesson	934
	1,886	Palmer's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months	52	$60	935
1868	*300	Gabelsberger-Geiger phonography.		3 years	42	Free	936
Sept., 1886		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	8 months	40	$25 per annum	937
Nov. 1, 1888	120	Graham's, Benn Pitman's, and Longley's phonography.	Remington (12)	6 months	52	$15 per month	938
Oct., 1885	72	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 months		$5	939
Jan. 1, 1888	*900	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (15), Caligraph (2), Smith (2), Hammond (2).		52	$75 for full course; $50 for 6 months.	940
Sept. 6, 1889	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.		3 to 6 mos.	24	For boarding scholars, none; $5 for mail course.	941
Sept., 1884	230	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	2 years	40	Free to Jewish orphans.	942
1884	*500	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph, Remington, and Smith.	5 to 7 mos.	50	$80 per year	943
About 1880	*1,500	Graham's phonography.	Remington (13; Caligraph (10); Hammond (2).	6 months	52	$60 for 6 months	944
Oct., 1887	*150	do	Remington		20	Membership in association.	945
June, 1889	108	Benn Pitman's phonography and Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph (6)	4 or 5 mos.	52	$25 for course	946
1885	*200	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond (12).	6 months	52	$10 per month	947
Sept., 1885	600	do	Caligraph (2), 2 machines.	3 years	40	Free	948
1883	*1,800	Cross's shorthand and Graham's, Benn Pitman's, and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (23)	4 months	52	$40 for 6 months	949
Mar., 1889	44	Benn Pitman's phonography.		10 months	40	Free	950
1889	16	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 to 12 mos.		$20 full course	951
Nov. 11, 1889	18	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Remington (3)	3 months	40	$15 per month	952
Jan. 1, 1890	10	Eclectic	Remington (1)	9 months	48	$9 per term of 9 weeks.	953
1880		Longley's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and New Rapid.	6 months for amanuensis.		$60 for amanuensis course; $100 for reporter's course.	954

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	OREGON—cont'd.							
34	Salem	Capital Business College.		1	2	9		
35	...do	Willamette University, private instruction.	Minnie Cunningham.	1	9	9		
36	...do	Private instruction	W. P. Williams					
	PENNSYLVANIA.							
37	Allegheny	Park Institute	W. A. Terry	1	10	10	18	7
38	...do	Private instruction	John E. Hall	1			8	6
39	Allentown	Allentown Business College.	W. L. Blackman	3	21	18	2	5
40	...do	Private instruction	Emma M. K. Steckel.	1	1	7		
41	Altoona	Mountain City Business College.	G. G. Zeth	2	49	80	36	54
42	...do	Private instruction	J. B. Anderson	1			3	
43	...do	...do	Charles A. Buch	1	2	8	25	5
44	...do	...do	S. L. Huyette	1	15	3		
45	...do	...do	H. H. Leader	1	2			
46	...do	...do	Geo. McDonald	1			4	1
47	...do	St. John's Boys' School.	Rev. Bro. Angelus, O. S. F.	1	25			
48	Beatty	St. Xavier's Academy	Miss Anna M. Aurentz.	1		15		
49	Berwick	Young Men's Christian Association.	E. B. Kepner	1			6	
50	Bethlehem	Bethlehem Business College: Institute of Shorthand.	P. D. Odenwelder	3	39	8	15	4
51	Blairsville	Private instruction	Miss Anna M. Aurentz.	1	1	4		
52	Burlingame	Private instruction	W. G. Thrall		1	1		
53	Canonsburg	Jefferson Academy	C. M. Des Islets	3	2	10		
54	Carlisle	Private instruction	W. J. Shearer	2			15	25
55	Chester	Chester Academy	Geo. Gilbert	3	14	8	12	8
56	Clarion	State Normal School	Mrs. W. B. M. Bashline.	2	11	8		
57	Connellsville	Private instruction	Rev. A. R. Seaman		1			
58	Conshohocken	Phonetic Institute. Private instruction	William Street	1				
59	Cooperstown	Cooperstown Grammar School; Cooperstown Shorthand School.	J. W. Beers	1	10	14	2	2
60	Corry	Corry Business College	Miss G. E. Muzzy	1	3	9	0	4
61	Dimmerts	Private instruction	F. M. Barber					
62	Edinboro	Edinboro School of Shorthand.	L. V. Kupper	1	10	20		
63	Erie	Erie Shorthand School.	Miss Kittie Shaefer	2	*35	*50	*30	*10

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1883	*100	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).		40	Part of regular course.	955
1882	880	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (6)	3 months		$30	956
Sept., 1886	116	Cross's shorthand and Benn Pitman's and Moran's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	12 months	36	$5 per term	957
Sept., 1888	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	6 months	26	$25	958
Jan. 1, 1889	49	do		4 months	40	$10 per month	959
1888	19	Anderson's shorthand typewriter.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1), Hammond (1),	About 12 weeks.	40	$5 per month	960
Oct. 1, 1889	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	About 9 months.		Free	961
Sept. 1, 1889	19	do	Remington (1), Caligraph (1), Rapid (1).	6 months	42	$45	962
1890		do	Caligraph (3), Remington (1).			$25 for 3 months	963
Oct. 15, 1888		Cross's shorthand and Munson's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 months	49	$30 for course	964
1885		McKee's shorthand.	Remington (1)	4 months	39½	$30	965
1887	25	Pitman's phonography.	Remington	3 to 6 mos.	53	$10 per month	966
June, 1887	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph			$10 for 20 lessons	967
1880	60	do		18 months		$5 per term of 3 months.	968
1887	13	Pernin's shorthand.	Hammond (4), Hall, (1).		40	$5 per month	969
1887		Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington	20 weeks		$50	970
Feb., 1889	8	do				Free	971
Sept. 1, 1885	83	S o Browne's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington, (1).	6 months		50 cents per lesson	972
1885	*75	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	do	48	$10 per quarter	973
1874		do	Remington (1)	10 months	40		974
Feb., 1889	10	do					975
		Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Hammond	3 to 4 mos.		$10 per month	976
Mar. 1, 1890		Cross' shorthand	Caligraph (1)	3 months			977
Oct., 1886	45	Longley's phonography.	Caligraph	6 to 8 mos.		$5 for 16 lessons	978
1870	400	do	Remington and Caligraph (3).	30 weeks	50	$10 for 10 weeks	979
June 4, 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)		11	50 cents per lesson	980
Oct. 19, 1887	21	do	do		44	$8 per month, shorthand and typewriting.	981

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

[Estim

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of s			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	PENNSYLVANIA—continued.							
1064	Erie	The New Rapid College of Shorthand; Clark's Business College.	B. C. Van Wye	2	9	30	20	
1065	Fredericksburg	Schuylkill Seminary (commercial department.)	William F. Speidel	1	7	1		
1066	Fredonia	The Fredonia Shorthand School; Fredonia Normal Academy.	Anna S. Bowman	1	7	7	1	1
1067	Gettysburg	Private instruction	Leander Goetz	1				
1068	Gratz	do	Geo. W. Coleman		47	26	6	1
1069	Greensburg	Greensburg Seminary	Geo. E. Merkley	1	15	7		
1070	Grove City	Grove City College	Miss M. E. Kugler	1	9	14		
1071	Harrisburg	School of Shorthand, Keystone Business College.	H. O. Bernhardt	2	4	6	9	1
1072	Hazleton	Hazleton Business College.	M. K. Bussard	2	24	16	4	
1073	Hughstown	Private instruction	Thomas W. Thomas	1			4	
1074	Indiana	Commercial Department of State Normal School.	C. E. Chase	1	13	16		
1075	Karns City	Pollard's Shorthand Class.	I. G. Pollard	1	8	12		
1076	Kingston	Wyoming Seminary and College of Business.	E. W. Davenport.	1	8	7		
1077	Lancaster	Private instruction	Coe Mulock	1	2	1		
1078	Lewisburg	Bucknell Academy	J. H. Blackwood	3	141	45		
1079	McKeesport	Gressly Business College and Teachers' Academy.	S. S. Gressly	1	6	4	10	
1080	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	S. S. Gressly	1			18	
1081	Marietta	Private instruction	Fred. D. Orth	1	4			
1082	Meadville	Bryant, Stratton & Smith Business College.	G. H. St. John	2	30	20	15	10
1083	Mechanicsburg	Private instruction	L. E. Dornbach	1	3	35		
1084	Milroy	do	Samuel T. Moore	1	4	1		
1085	Mountain Top	do	Rev. John C. Aughey.	1	8	4		
1086	Mount Pleasant	Western Pennsylvania Classical and Scientific Institute.	Miss Lotta Mather, 1888–89; Mr. C. B. Reno, 1890.	2	3			
1087	Muddy Creek Forks	Pleasant Grove Academy.	James Yeats	1	7	9		
1088	New Berlin	Central Pennsylvania College (commercial department).	J. H. Mauser	1	3			
1089	Oberlin	Private instruction	Samuel D. Light	1				

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1884	.....	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (2)	4 to 5 mos.	50	$8 per month.....	982
May 1, 1889	28	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3) ...	3 to 5 mos.	50	$30.....	983
Mar. 5, 1886	14	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph	100 evenings.	36	75 cents per lesson.	984
Dec. 25, 1887	80	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....do	.....	....	$50 for course.....	985
1886.....	15	Haven's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	3 to 6 mos.	50	$30 for course.....	986
.....	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	1 year	....	$50.....	987
Sept. 1, 1889	18	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)	...do	40	50 cents per week.	988
1869.....	120	Graham's phonography.	.....	.....	....	30 cents per week.	989
July, 1888	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	.....	....	.....	990
July, 1889	60	....do	Caligraph, Remington, and Hammond.	4 to 5 mos.	....	$50 for complete course.	991
Oct., 1889	10	....do	None	15 months.	32	$3 per month	992
1885.....	17	....do	Caligraph.....	6 months..	24	$15 for 60 lessons..	993
1880.....	.....	Cross's shorthand.	Remington, Smith, Caligraph, and Hammond.	4 to 8 mos.	50	$50.....	994
1888.....	25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2), Yost (1).	4 months..	36	$35 per term of 4 months.	995
Apr. 14, 1890	9	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	3 to 4 mos.	52	$35 in Piqua; $40 in Dayton; $10 by mail.	996
Dec., 1889	10	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Yost (1).....	4 to 6 mos.	....	50 cents per lesson.	997
Feb. 1, 1890	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph.....	.....	....	$2.50 per week	998
June, 1886	10	Porter's shorthand.	Remington	6 months..	....	$5 per month.....	999
April, 1885	.....	....do	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 months to 1 yr.	....	$1 per lesson.....	1000
Nov. 1, 1889	*25	Munson's phonography.	.....	.....	24	Membership in Association ($5).	1001
Feb., 1889	12	Graham's phonography.	None	.....	24	Membership in Association ($1).	1002
.....	.....	....do	Caligraph (1)	12 months.	38	$25 full course, shorthand and typewriting.	1003
Nov. 13, 1889	8	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1) ..	4 to 6 mos.	52	$40.....	1004
Dec., 1889	10	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington	.....	30	25 cents per lesson.	1005
1880.....	.....	Munson's phonography.	Remington (20) ..	12 months.	52	$15 for one month; $50 for six mos.	1006
Jan. 12, 1889	40	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (1), Hammond (1).	8 weeks to 4 mos.	48	$30.....	1007
1885.....	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1).....	4 to 6 mos.	44	$10 for 24 lessons..	1008
Sept., 1884	900	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (5), Remington (1).	6 months..	50	$7 per month.....	1009

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	OHIO—continued.										
1010	Toledo	Steadman Shorthand School, Steadman Business College.	John J. Whetsel.	2	10	9	2	2			23
1011	....do	Toledo Business College.	J. R. Skelley	2	35	60	15	10			120
1012	Troy	Private instruction	C. F. Grosvenor	1	2	2					4
1013	Tupper's Plains	Tupper's Plains Academy.	M. Bowers								
1014	Urbana	St. Mary's Parochial School.	Sisters of Mercy	2	2	2					4
1015	Wauseon	Northwestern Normal and Collegiate Institute.	C. L. Goll	1	*32	*18					* 50
1016	Westerville	Otterbein University	Tressa M. Maxwell.	1	10	6					16
1017	West Farmington.	Campbell's school of shorthand and typewriting, Farmington College.	Homer W. Campbell.	1	4	28				2	34
1018	Wooster	Bixler's College of Shorthand, Bixler's Business College.	Mrs. A. J. Dover.	1	9	15					25
1019	....do	University of Wooster.	H. F. Allison	1	4						4
1020	Xenia	O. S. and S. O. Home Shorthand School.	Miss M. G. Igler.	1	12	23					35
1021	Yellow Springs.	Antioch College	F. G. Strickland	1	3	1					4
1022	Youngstown	Actual Business College.	W. Douglas	3	3	6	2	1			12
1023	....do	Johnston School of Shorthand; also private instruction.	B. O. Eddy, M. L. Johnston, Lulu Mackey.	4	3	37	2	5	1	1	49
1024	Zanesville	Private instruction	J. D. Fisher	1			4	4			8
1025	Youngstown	Steiner's Shorthand College; Steiner's Business College.	Miss Lizzie R. Corin.	1	16	21	2	6			45
1026	Zanesville	Zanesville Business College.	Emilie Saumenig	2	11	25					37
	OKLAHOMA TERRITORY.										
1027	Frisco	Private instruction	M. A. Smedley	1		2					2
	OREGON.										
1028	Hillsboro	Private instruction	W. A. Newell	1			4	2			6
1029	Philomath	Philomath College	Henry Sheak	1	1	1					2
1030	Portland	Bishop Scott Academy	Hattie Z. Sampson	1	8						8
1031	....do	Holmes Business College.	G. Holmes	3	120	180			10	15	325
1032	....do	Portland Business College.	Miss Etta E. Moore	3	15	50					65
1033	....do	Studies of shorthand.	Mrs. L. Bronson Salmon.	1	9	28	5	25	10	12	89

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Jan. 1, 1890	23	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Yost (3).	5 to 7 mos.	52	$30	1010
Sept. 1, 1884	550	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (6)	6 to 9 mos.	48	$5 per month; $30 scholarship.	1011
1880		Munson's phonography.	Caligraph				1012
1876	35	Pitman's phonography and Eames's shorthand.		10 months.	48	$6	1013
Sept., 1889	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	do	36	$20 and $25	1014
Sept. 1, 1888	*75	Cross's shorthand and Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	30 weeks	40	$10	1015
1889	16	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	3 to 6 mos.	38	$5 per month	1016
Aug. 20, 1889	32	Cross's and McKee's shorthand and Benn Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	5 to 6 mos.	40	$20 for course	1017
Sept., 1889	24	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1), Hammond (1).	About 9 months.	52	$52 for 6 mos	1018
1886	35	Benn Pitman's phonography.		24 weeks	35	$10 for 12 weeks	1019
1885	(a)	do	Remington and Caligraph.	2 to 3 years	40		1020
		Cross's shorthand.	Hammond		36	$35 per year	1021
Mar. 17, 1890	12	McKee's shorthand.	Remington (2)	3 months	50	$40	1022
Dec. 1, 1889	40	Graham's phonography.	Remington (5)	12 months.	52	$6 per month	1023
1887	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.		13 lessons,		$5	1024
1887	200	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	6 months	52	$5 per week	1025
Sept. 11, 1889	36	Munson's phonography and the stenograph.	Hammond (1), Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 months	52	$48 for course	1026
	2	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	3 to 5 mos.	52	$1.25 per week	1027
Dec. 15, 1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	6 to 9 mos.	52	$6 per month	1028
1873	42	Isaac Pitman's, followed by Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)		40	$5 per quarter	1029
Jan. 1, 1887	19	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)		39		1030
Oct. 1, 1884	Over 1,000	Graham's and Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Yost.	3 to 6 mos.	52	$10 per month	1031
Sept., 1885	*300	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (10), Caligraph (3) Yost (1)	6 to 9 mos.	52	$50 for 6 months	1032
		Bronson's shorthand.	Caligraph, (3)	3 months		$30	1033

a About 25 per year.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the United States

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	OREGON—cont'd.										
1034	Salem	Capital Business College.		1	*2	9					11
1035	....do	Willamette University, private instruction.	Minnie Cunningham.	1	9	9					18
1036	....do	Private instruction	W. P. Williams								
	PENNSYLVANIA.										
1037	Allegheny	Park Institute	W. A. Terry	1	10	10	18	7			45
1038	....do	Private instruction	John E. Hall	1			8	6			14
1039	Allentown	Allentown Business College.	W. L. Blackman	3	21	18	2	5			46
1040	....do	Private instruction	Emma M. K. Steckel.	1	1	7					8
1041	Altoona	Mountain City Business College.	G. G. Zeth	2	49	80	36	54	25	7	251
1042	....do	Private instruction	J. B. Anderson	1			3				3
1043	....do	....do	Charles A. Buch	1	2	8	25	5			40
1044	....do	....do	S. L. Huyette	1	15	3					18
1045	....do	....do	H. H. Leader	1	2						2
1046	....do	....do	Geo. McDonald	1			4	1			5
1047	....do	St. John's Boys' School.	Rev. Bro. Angelus, O. S. F.	1	25						25
1048	Beatty	St. Xavier's Academy	Miss Anna M. Aurentz.	1		15					15
1049	Berwick	Young Men's Christian Association	E. B. Kepner	1			6				6
1050	Bethlehem	Bethlehem Business College Institute of Shorthand.	P. D. Odenwelder	3	39	8	15	4	10	3	79
1051	Blairsville	Private instruction	Miss Anna M. Aurentz.	1	1	4					5
1052	Burlingame	Private instruction	W. G. Thrall		1	1			1	1	4
1053	Canonsburg	Jefferson Academy	C. M. Des Islets	3	2	10					12
1054	Carlisle	Private instruction	W. J. Shearer	2			15	25	2	1	43
1055	Chester	Chester Academy	Geo. Gilbert	3	14	8	12	8		1	43
1056	Clarion	State Normal School	Mrs. W. B. M. Bashline.	2	11	8					19
1057	Connellsville	Private instruction	Rev. A. R. Seaman		1						1
1058	Conshohocken	Phonetic Institute; Private instruction	William Street	1					20	30	50
1059	Cooperstown	Cooperstown Grammar School; Cooperstown Shorthand School.	J. W. Beers	1	10	14	2	2			28
1060	Corry	Corry Business College.	Miss G. E. Muzzy	1	3	9	0	4	0	0	16
1061	Dinsmore	Private instruction	F. M. Barber						5		5
1062	Edinboro	Edinboro School of Shorthand.	L. V. Kupper	1	10	20					30
1063	Erie	Erie Shorthand School.	Miss Kittie Shaefer	2	*35	*50	*30	*10	*6	*6	137

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept. 7, 1889	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	.....	....	$50 for 6 months ..	1034
Oct. 6, 1889	18	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	.....	40	.....	1035
Jan., 1889	5	....do	Remington.....	.....	....	50 cents per lesson	1036
Sept. 2, 1889	.....	....do	Caligraph (2), Remington (1), Hammond (1).	.....	....	$25 for 6 months, $5 per month.	1037
Oct. 1, 1889	14	....do	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	6 months .	....	50 cents per lesson	1038
1887.....	.....	Lindsley's tachygraphy and Pernin's shorthand.	Hammond (3)....	3 to 6 mos.	52	$25 for 3 months..	1039
June, 1889	8	Pernin's shorthand.	Hammond	4 months ..	16	$15.....	1040
1879.....	1,800	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (3)	9 months .	52	$12 per month, shorthand and typewriting.	1041
Apr., 1888	6	....do	.....	4 months .	40	$2 for 8 lessons....	1042
Sept., 1887	*80	Isaac Pitman's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1), Remington (1).	6 months .	....	$3 for 12 lessons of one-half hour each.	1043
Jan., 1888	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	.....	....	50 cents per hour .	1044
.....	.....	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington.....	.....	....	$3 per month	1045
June 19, 1889	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)...	3 months .	36	20 cents per hour .	1046
1880.....	*200	....do	None	3 years....	40	Included in general tuition fees.	1047
Apr. 17, 1889	21	....do	National (1)	6 months .	....	$3 per month.....	1048
1890.....	6	Graham's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	1049
Dec. 31, 1888	81	Kimball's reporting and Lindsley's corresponding tachygraphy.	Remington	5 to 8 mos.	46	.....	1050
June 29, 1888	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	7 months .	....	$5 per month	1051
Dec., 1886	10	Osgoodby's phonography.	Caligraph.....	2 years....	13	$10.....	1052
1875.....	.....	.....	....do	.....	....	$30 for course.....	1053
Mar., 1890	40	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	5 months .	....	$5.....	1054
1865.....	*250	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	6 to 12 mos	39	$50 for course.....	1055
1888.....	32	Porter's shorthand.	Caligraph (2)	.....	42	$42 per year.....	1056
1880.....	20	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	.....	100 lessons	....	$100.....	1057
1860.....	5,000	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	3 to 6 mos.	....	$5 to $10	1058
Apr. 7, 1890	28	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	None	4 months .	39	$3 per month.....	1059
1889.....	.....	Day's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	6 months .	40	$20 for 3 months ..	1060
Dec., 1889	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	8 to 12 mos	....	25 cents per lesson by mail.	1061
Mar. 24, 1889	45	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph.....	4 to 6 mos.	....	$10 per term	1062
Jan. 1, 1887	300	....do	Remington (7)...	6 months .	50	$50 for 6 months ..	1063

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of		
					Day.		Eve ing
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	PENNSYLVANIA—continued.						
1141	Waterford	Waterford Academy.	Miss R. Aten	2	5	10	...
1142	Wilkes-Barre	Normal Business College.	G. B. Mallery	2	2	...	3
1143	...do	School of Phonography and Typewriting.	Miss S. L. Brewer.	2	3	5	5
1144	...do	School of Shorthand and Typewriting, Wilkes-Barre Business College.	Miss Ray D. Griffith.	1	15	10	6
1145	Williamsport	Pott's Shorthand and Business College.	Chas. R. Pott	3	81	56	144
1146	...do	Williamsport School of Shorthand; Williamsport Commercial College.	Miss Sarah Chatham.	1	...	...	...
1147	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Mrs. Robert Jaggard.	2	...	...	7
1148	York	Bacheldor's Business College.	J. M. Bacheldor	1	9	3	8
1149	...do	High School	A. Wanner	1	6	18	...
1150	...do	Private instruction	S. B. Drenning	1	2	...	...
1151	...do	...do	J. T. Rubie	1	...	...	11
1152	...do	...do	W. C. Sudick	1	...	...	6
1153	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	C. H. Torrington	2	...	...	13
	RHODE ISLAND.						
1154	East Greenwich.	The East Greenwich Academy.	Mrs. H. M. Whedon	1	5	6	...
1155	Providence	La Salle Academy	Rev. Bro. Josiah	2	60	...	...
1156	...do	Private instruction	Caroline Louisa Atwell.	1	...	...	...
1157	...do	...do	Maria Budlong	1	...	1	...
1158	...do	...do	Etta A. Corbin	1	...	...	...
1159	...do	...do	T. J. Griffin	1	...	...	2
1160	...do	...do	Augustus T. Swift	1	3	...	...
1161	...do	...do	J. C. Thompson	1	...	...	...
1162	...do	...do	D. Webster	1	1	...	...
1163	...do	Rhode Island Shorthand College.	Mrs. Eldora J. Schofield.	2	...	...	43
1164	...do	Schofield's Commercial College.	A. R. Abbott	1	3	6	...
1165	...do	Shorthand School, Bryant and Stratton Business College.	W. Henry Kluyan.	1	10	50	16
1166	...do	Spencerian Business College.	E. Thompson	1	...	18	...
1167	...do	Young Men's Christian Association.	George Farnell	1	...	...	15
1168	Woonsocket	School of Shorthand	A. M. Hubbard	2	2	4	3

a The class of 1890–'91 consisted of 25 males.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
June 1, 1889	73	Haven's phonography; Graham's and Benn Pitman's.	Remington (12)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$30 to $45	1090
Jan., 1889	*250	Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.	Remington (8)	4 months	52	$12 per month, day sessions; $4 per month, evening.	1091
Oct. 14, 1889	75	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond and Remington.	Depends upon student.	52	$45 for 4 months	1092
1887	*125	do	Remington (3)	4 to 6 mos.	43	$5 per month	1093
1880		do	Remington and Caligraph.	3 years	10 mos.	Free	1094
Sept., 1882		Haven's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (5).	3 months	52	$15 per month	1095
Sept., 1877		Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.	Remington (15), Caligraph (1).	6 months	52	$50	1096
1870		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (4)	1 to 2 years	40	No extra charge for shorthand; $10 per year for use of typewriters.	1097
1881	*2,000	do	Remington (7), Caligraph (1), Hammond (1).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$45, full course	1098
1884	50	do	Remington	6 months		$30	1099
May, 1885		Scott-Browne's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Hammond, and Caligraph (27).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$45 for 4 months; $65 for 6 months.	1100
1879	*2,000	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Hammond (17).	3 to 5 mos.	52	$40 per quarter	1101
Mar. 6, 1889	251	do	Remington (16)		43	$120 per year	1102
1886		do	Remington and Caligraph.		52	$12 per month	1103
		Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	4 months.	52	$40 per term of 4 months.	1104
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	5 months		50 cents per lesson.	1105
		Haven's phonography.	Remington				1106
May, 1887	24	Everett's shorthand.	Hammond (1), National (1).	About 3 months.		$30	1107
1885	150	Cross's shorthand.	None	2 years	39	No extra fee for this study.	1108
July, 1889	25	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	do	12 to 15 lessons.		Free	1109
Nov., 1889	35					do	1110
Oct., 1879	110	Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.			32		1111
1886	175	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (5).		24	Membership in association, $5.	1112
							1113

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number o		
					Day.		Ev in
					Male.	Female.	Male.
	SOUTH CAROLINA.						
1169	Charleston	Private instruction	Miss Lula Lee	1	1	5	...
1170	Clinton	Thornwell Orphanage	Wm. P. Jacobs	1	2	2	...
1171	Columbia	Benedict College	C. E. Becker	1	2	...	...
1172	Hartzog	Hunter's Chapel, Calisthenic Academy.	Henry S. Hartzog	1	9	11	...
1173	Newberry	Newberry College	W. C. Shott	1	4	...	
	SOUTH DAKOTA.						
1174	Brookings	South Dakota Agricultural College.	V. B. Vallean	1	...	...	...
1175	Hot Springs	Black Hills College	Mattie C. Allen	1	2	...	...
1176	Madison	Private instruction	Mrs. H. E. St. Clair	1	1	2	...
1177	Redfield	Redfield College	I. A. Shanton	1	...	...	...
1178	Sioux Falls	Ivey's Shorthand and Typewriting School, University of Sioux Falls.	Chas. J. Ivey	1	10	15	...
1179	Spearfish	State Normal School.	F. L. Cook	1	12	4	...
1180	Watertown	School of Shorthand and Typewriting, Watertown Commercial College.	Mrs. H. L. Winslow.	3	...	...	...
	TENNESSEE.						
1181	Chattanooga	Private instruction	T. W. Haigler	1	6	2	...
1182	do	School of Stenography. Mountain City Business College.	J. W. Agey	3	4	37	
1183	Columbia	Columbia Athenæum	Miss Bessie Shanb	1	...	25	...
1184	Henderson	West Tennessee Christian College.	Mrs. S. B. Crump	1	18	7	...
1185	Knoxville	Young's College of Shorthand.	John C. Young	3	42	57	...
1186	Memphis	Christian Brothers' College.	Rev. Bro. Leonidas	1	10	...	...
1187	do	Bigbee School	Miss Jennie Falls	2	...	...	...
1188	do	J. N. Daniel's Business School.	J. N. Daniel	1	...	1	...
1189	do	Leddin Business College.	Miss Laura V. Slaughter.	1	6	54	
1190	do	Private instruction	Miss Mal Ellis	1	3	6	
1191	do	Memphis Baptist Bible Institute; private instruction.	R. N. Countee	1	8	2	...
1192	do	St. Agnes Academy	Sister Veronica Livers.	1	...	8	...
1193	do	St. Bridget's School	Rev. P. Clement Moormann, O. S. F.	1	...	...	...

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Oct. 1, 1889	80	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (3), Caligraph (3), Hammond (3).	6 months	26	Membership in association (pupils by mail, $30 per 6 months.)	1114
1886	.....	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph	4 months	.....	$25 for 6 months	1115
1874	(a)	Graham's phonography.	Yost (1)	2 years	40	Free	1116
1882	.....	Graham's, Munson's, and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Smith.	1 year	40	$55	1117
1886	350	Graham's phonography.	Hammond (3), Caligraph (5), Remington (2).	9 months	53	$40 for 6 months	1118
Jan. 1, 1888	20	Pitman's phonography.	Remington	.....	40	$25 a year	1119
Oct., 1884	188	Graham's phonography.	None	12 months	26	Membership in Association, $5.	1120
.....	*100	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (2)	3 to 6 mos.	36	$10 per month	1121
Sept. 1, 1886	182	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	4 months	52	$15 for 25 lessons	1122
Nov. 1, 1884	53	....do	Remington and Caligraph (3).	6 months	14	$10 for 20 lessons	1123
1887	31	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	3 months	.....	$5 for 15 lessons	1124
May 1, 1887	25	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	....do	.....	50 cents per lesson	1125
1883	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	....do	48	$10	1126
Nov., 1889	9	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	4 months	.....	$20 per season	1127
Apr. 18, 1890	12	Benn Pitman's phonography; also Eames' shorthand.	Caligraph	3 months	40	$6.25 per session of 10 weeks.	1128
.....	.....	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	.....	.....	1129
Sept. 26, 1888	.....	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (3)	6 to 9 mos.	52	$15 for 3 months	1130
Jan. 1, 1882	*600	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	6 months	53	$7.50 per month	1131
July, 1889	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	....do	.....	$20 for 50 lessons	1132
May 1, 1890	12	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	.....	52	$25 for course	1133
.....	36	....do	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	.....	$25	1134
1888	7	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	....do	.....	.....	$15, corresponding style; $20 amanuensis style; $30 reporting style.	1135
Sept. 10, 1884	15	Isaac Pitman's phonography (Americanized).	Remington (1)	5 to 10 mos	.....	$40 for course	1136
Mar. 25, 1890	17	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	9 to 11 mos	.....	$20	1137
1887	15	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost (1), Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	2 years	.....	$5 per month	1138
Apr. 3, 1890	14	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	10 months	45	Free	1139
Sept. 1889	80	Benn Pitman's phonography and McKee's shorthand.	....do	4 years	36	....do	1140

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

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	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	TENNESSEE—con.							
1194	Memphis	St. Mary's School	Rev. P. Clement Moormann, O. S. F.	1				
1195	Nashville	Central Tennessee College (colored).	Reuben A. Sealy	1	11	7		
1196	do	Roger Williams Shorthand Institute, Roger Williams University.	D. R. Leland	1	13			
1197	do	Nashville Shorthand Institute.	Alexander Fall	2	72	144	21	43
1198	Sewanee	University of the South, private instruction.	John Lewis	1	12	3		
	TEXAS.							
1199	Austin	Capital Business College.	J. H. Osborne	2	8	6	5	
1200	do	St. Edward's College.	B. Stanislaus Clarke.	4	14			
1201	do	Texas Business College.	Mrs. Alice L. Walden.	2				
1202	Belton	Baylor Female College.	Marian Spencer	1		2		
1203	Corsicana	Corsicana Phonographic Circle.	Thos. Jno. Storr	1	10	2	10	2
1204	Dallas	Dallas Business College.	Miss Bell Anul	1	*10	*20	10	10
1205	do	Hill's Business College.	J. W. Butcher	1	10	13	15	
1206	do	Private instruction	Rose Rosenthal	1	6	9	3	1
1207	Denison	Gate City Business College.	F. E. Barnes	1	2	5		
1208	El Paso	Private instruction	E. E. Russell	1	1	2		
1209	Fort Worth	Fort Worth Business College.	Miss Sybil Emery	1	40	70		
1210	Galveston	Convington Business College.	Miss Lucie H. Gerdine.	1	53	123		
1211	Glen Rose	Glen Rose Collegiate Institute.	W. A. Bolles	1	1	2		
1212	Houston	Private instruction.	M. A. Grant	1	22	8		
1213	Marshall	do	Mrs. Thos. Bell	1				
1214	New Braunfels	do	August Klingemann.	1	7	7		
1215	Palestine	do	John W. Vossler	1	1		2	
1216	Paris	Texas Business College.	Leon M. Estabrook	2				
1217	San Antonio	St Mary's College	John Wolfe	1	16			
1218	Sherman	Mahan's Commercial College.	A. W. South	1	11	8	4	
1219	Sulphur Springs	Private instruction	Mrs. C. E. Jones	1	1	1		
1220	Texarkana	Draughon's Practical Business College.	N. S. Keenan	1	10	5		

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1889	15	Longley's phonography.	Remington	6 months	39		1141
Mar. 1, 1890	5	Lindsley's tachygraphy and the stenograph.	Remington (1), National (1).	do	52	$40 for Lindsley's system; $20 for stenograph.	1142
1884		Burns's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$15 per month; $75 for scholarship.	1143
Jan., 1887	40	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (2).	6 months	52	$50	1144
1882	*1,600	Graham's phonography.	Smith (10); Remington (1), Caligraph (1), Hammond (1).	4 months	52		1145
About 1884		Graham's phonography and Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond.		52	$40	1146
1889	17	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	1 winter	24	$2	1147
1887		Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 to 8 mos.	52	$40	1148
1889	24	do		1 year	36	Free	1149
July, 1886	10	Cross's shorthand.	None	5 months		50 cents per lesson.	1150
1888	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 months	48	50 cents per lesson; $20 for course.	1151
July, 1887	10	do	Remington	6½ months	52	50 cents a lesson	1152
Jan. 1, 1886	42	do			24 to 28	Membership in Association $5.	1153
Sept., 1888	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)		40	$45	1154
Oct., 1878	275	Graham's phonography.	Remington	3 years for verbatim reporting	40	$30 a year	1155
Jan., 1890	1	Benn Pitman's phonography.		3 months		$25	1156
1888	3	do		9 months		$25	1157
1886	15	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph	1 year	50	$1 per lesson	1158
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	24 weeks		$40	1159
1884	25	do	do	Depends on pupil's ability.		50 cents per lesson	1160
1850	300	do	do	10 weeks		$10 for 10 lessons	1161
*1880	*30	Graham's phonography.	None	1 year or until qualified.		$1 per lesson	1162
1876	871	Benn Pitman's, Munson's, and Graham's phonography.	Remington			$40	1163
1883		do	Caligraph	3 months	48	$30	1164
Sept., 1887	*130	Munson's phonography.	Remington	3 to 5 mos.	40	$40 per term of 20 weeks.	1165
1885	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	3 to 6 mos.		$30	1166
1885	*100	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	20 weeks	20	$2	1167
Sept. 1, 1889	17	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$40 at school $20 by mail.	1168

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Evening.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	TEXAS—cont'd.							
1221	Thorps Spring	School of Shorthand and Typewriting, Add Ran Christian University.	Mrs. J. B. Cook	1	12	13	...	...
1222	Tyler	College of Phonography.	C. Hansen	1	4	2	9	...
1223	Waco	Baylor Shorthand Institute, Baylor University.	B. F. Stuart	1	37	3	...	...
1224	...do	Hill's Business College.	A. Ragland	1	8	3	...	...
1225	Weimar	Private instruction	David Matthews	1	...	...	6	2
	UTAH.							
1226	Murray	Private instruction	James Sanders	1	...	...	7	...
1227	Provo City	Brigham Young Academy.	H. A. Anderson	1	21	4	2	1
1228	Salt Lake City	Latter-day Saints' College.	Willard Done	1	*25	*10	...	...
1229	...do	Practical Shorthand College.	Emily C. Curtiss	3	26	38	10	2
1230	...do	Stiehl's Business College.	Leon P. Stiehl	1	...	...	...	...
1231	Springfield	Hungerford Academy. Private instruction.	L. B. Work	1	1	3	...	...
	VERMONT.							
1232	Brattleboro	Private instruction	Florence E. Clark	1	...	...	...	...
1233	Burlington	Burlington Business College.	E. G. Evans	1	5	13	...	...
1234	Northfield	Private instruction	C. B. Riggs	1	7	5	...	...
1235	Poultney	Troy Conference Academy.	W. A. Frasier	1	4	5	...	...
1236	Rutland	Private instruction	Ella M. Ballou	1	2	4	...	...
1237	Waterbury Center.	Green Mountain Seminary.	Miss Cora B. Hunter.	1	4	1	...	...
	VIRGINIA.							
1238	Blacksburg	Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College.	W. H. Graham	1	16	...	...	...
1239	Bridgewater	Bridgewater College	F. M. Stutsman	1	8	...	...	...
1240	Glade Spring	Southwest Virginia Institute.	Miss Jessica A. Yates.	1	3	13	...	...
1241	Hampton	Private instruction	V. P. Holt	1	...	3	...	...
1242	Norfolk	Norfolk Academy	K. C. Murray	1	6	...	...	...
1243	...do	Norfolk Business College.	Miss T. C. Hope	2	17	9	7	...
1244	...do	Private instruction	W. Boettcher	1	5	9	10	2
1245	...do	...do	W. L. Calwell	1	8	2	...	...

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Jan., 1884	39	Burnz's phonography.	Hammond	9 months		50 cents a lesson	1169
1880	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	do	40	Free	1170
Oct., 1889	2	Anderson's shorthand machine.	Hammond, Caligraph, Remington, and Hall.		35	No extra charge for pupils in regular course.	1171
Jan. 1, 1890	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	6 months	40	$3 per month for outside scholars.	1172
Dec. 1, 1888	7	Porter's shorthand	Caligraph (1)	do	34	$20	1173
1887	45	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Smith (4), Remington (4).	1 year	36	$1 for 12 weeks	1174
Sept. 11, 1889		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost	6 months	36	$10 per month	1175
Feb. 28, 1890	3	do	Remington	do	52	$40	1176
Sept., 1888	*25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	1 year	39	$30	1177
Mar. 20, 1888	69	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Smith (1).	3 to 5 mos	52	$10 per month	1178
Sept., 1886	65	Munson's phonography.	Remington (4)	1 year	38	Free	1179
Jan., 1888		Graham's and Moran's phonography.	National and Remington (4).	6 months, amanuensis; 12 months, reporting style.	52	$50 for 6 months	1180
1888	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.		6 months		$3 per month	1181
July, 1886	*180	Munson's phonography and the stenograph.	Remington, Hammond, Caligraph, and Yost (5).	4 to 6 mos.	44	$70 per year	1182
Aug., 1888	25	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph		40	$5 per month	1183
Sept., 1889	25	Longley's phonography.	do	3 to 6 mos.	38	$2.50 to $5 per month.	1184
Dec., 1887	150	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (10), Remington (5), Hammond (1).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$50 for course	1185
1887	34	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	40 weeks	40	In regular course.	1186
Sept., 1888	20	Pitman's phonography.	Remington		38	$12 per month	1187
	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	6 to 12 mos.	52	$3 to $10 per month	1188
		Benn Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, and Smith.	6 to 8 mos.	52	$45 for 6 months	1189
	9	Anderson's shorthand typewriter.	Remington (2)	4 to 6 wks.		$5 per week	1190
		Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph	8 weeks for principles.		$10	1191
Jan., 1890	8	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)		42		1192
Sept., 1888	30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	3 to 7 mos.	40	$1 per month additional for day pupils; $2 per month at night school.	1193

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the

[Estima

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	VIRGINIA—cont'd.							
1246	Norfolk	Young Men's Christian Association.	W. J. King	1	....	....	17	..
1247	Petersburg	Private instruction	James Hancock	1	....	....	12	..
1248	Richmond	Private instruction	O. Raymond Brown	1	....	....	30	
1249	...do	Richmond College. Private instruction.	C. C. Crittenden	1	6	....	....	..
1250	...do	Private instruction	Sylvanus Jones	1	....	1	8	
1251	...do	St. Joseph's Academy	Sister ————	1	....	12	....	..
1252	...do	Smithdeal Business College.	Miss B. Brill	1	24	17	5	
1253	Roanoke	National Business College.	Miss Clara Fortna	2	6	3	1	..
1254	...do	Private instruction	G. Graham Anderson.	1	....	....	12	..
1255	Salem	Acme Shorthand School.	Julian L. Swindell	1	....	....	5	..
1256	Spottswood	Valley High School	Rev. James M. Schreckhise.	1	6	....	....	..
1257	Staunton	School of Stenography and Typewriting, Wesleyan Female Institute.	C. H. Bucher	1	2	9	....	..
1258	Stuart	Virginia Business College.	Miss P. L. Monroe.	1	19	12	....	..
	WASHINGTON.							
1259	Seattle	Private instruction	Mrs. Florence A. Thomas.	1	4	21	3	
1260	Sehome	do	J. W. Manuel	1	....	....	2	..
1261	Spokane	Spokane College	H. C. Blair	1	3	2	....	..
1262	...do	Spokane Business College.	S. J. Shaw	1	7	15	....	..
1263	Tacoma	Tacoma Business College.	J. W. Tait	3	23	30	11	
1264	Vancouver	Mrs. E. O. Gardner's Shorthand Class.	Mrs. E. O. Gardner	1	....	....	....	..
1265	Waitsburg	Waitsburg Academy	Merwin Pugh	1	3	3	....	.
1266	Walla Walla	Empire Business College.	Mrs. J. F. Stubblefield.	1	2	3	....	..
	WEST VIRGINIA.							
1267	Bethany	Private instruction	F. A. Chapman	1	6	2	....	..
1268	...do	Bethany College	Melanethon Moore	1	6	5	....	..
1269	...do	Private instruction	H. C. Tener	1	1	4	....	..
1270	Fairmont	Fairmont State Normal School.	J. M. Yates	1	15	4	....	..
1271	...do	Fairmont Shorthand and Typewriting Institute. Mountain State Business College.	A. G. Sine	1	18	5	....	..

a Some of these pupils were taught at Spokane Falls, Wash.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1888	27	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	3 to 7 mos.	40	$1 per month additional for day pupils; $2 per month at night school.	1194
Nov., 1889	18	....do	Remington (1)	1 year	36	$3 per month	1195
1890	13	Graham's and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington	12 months.	32	$30 for course	1196
Nov. 1, 1885	596	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (7), Remington (1), Yost (1).	6 months	52	$65, or $12.50 per month.	1197
May, 1890	15	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (1)	6 to 8 mos.	40	$5 per month	1198
Apr. 1, 1888	34	Benn Pitman's, Isaac Pitman's, and Munson's phonography.	Caligragh (2), Crandall (1).	4 months	48	$25	1199
1887	25	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Crandall.		40	$20 for 40 weeks	1200
		Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph (3)			$50 for 6 months	1201
Sept., 1888	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	2 years	40	$4	1202
Jan., 1888	*30	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	3 to 4 mos.		$30 for course	1203
1882		The stenographa	....do	4 months	52	$60	1204
Jan., 1888	58	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (3)	3½ to 5 mos	52	$40 full course	1205
1883		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	3 to 6 mos.		$40	1206
Jan. 7, 1890	7	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	4 months		$50 for scholarship; $10 per month.	1207
Jan. 1889	3	....do	Hammond				1208
1884	*600	The Stenograph	Caligraph (5)	About 4 months.	42	$60	1209
Apr. 1886	437	Graham's phonography and Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (8), Hammond (4).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$12.50 per month, tuition only; $75 for 6 months, including books and stationery.	1210
1889	3	Graham's phonography.	Remington	3 months	36	$5 per month	1211
June 15, 1890	30	Munson's and Day's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1), National (1).	6 months	52	$5 per week	1212
	6	Longley's phonography.				$5 per month	1213
Nov. 7, 1887	16	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		A few years.	40	$2 per month	1214
	3	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Yost (1)				1215
1888		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (2).	About 6 months.	52	$50 for 6 months	1216
Sept. 15, 1888	30	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington	1 year	40	No extra charge for shorthand.	1217
1887		Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (3)	4 to 6 mos.		$10 per month; $50 for 6 months.	1218
Mar. 7, 1890	2	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Caligraph	3 to 4 mos.		$5 per month	1219
	15	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington and Caligraph.	12 weeks		$25 per course	1220

a January 1, 1891, the Benn Pitman system was introduced; W. A. Throp, teacher.

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in the

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	WEST VIRGINIA—continued.							
1272	Flemington	Taylor County Classical Institute.	W. Colegrove	1	3	....	2	...
1273	Grafton	Private instruction	John S. Hechmer	1	4	2	....	...
1274	Huntington	do	Miss Aggie Thompson.	1	....	6	....	...
1275	Keyser	do	C. Van Spencer	1	....	....	10	1
1276	Wheeling	do	T. M. Carvin	1	....	....	....	...
1277	do	do	Louis E. Shrader	1	2	8	....	...
1278	do	School of Shorthand, Wheeling Business College.	Miss S. J. Carroll	1	7	25	5	5
	WISCONSIN.							
1279	Alverno	Holy Family Institute.		1	....	2	....	...
1280	Appleton	De Land's Business College.	Miss Christina McNabb.	1	11	12	....	...
1281	Chippewa Falls	Chippewa Falls Business College.	C. H. Howieson	1	15	5	2	1
1282	Eau Claire	College of Commerce.	R. O. Stoll	1	....	5	1	2
1283	do	Eau Claire Stenographic School; Curtis' Commercial College.	Mrs. M. J. Lanphear.	2	11	15	3	8
1284	Fond du Lac	Mann's Commercial College.	S. D. Mann	1	7	10	3	4
1285	Green Bay	Green Bay Business College.	Margaret Longneckard.	1	2	14	1	1
1286	Janesville	Janesville School of Shorthand and Typewriting; Valentine's School of Telegraphy.	Miss E. L. Williams.	3	....	....	....	..
1287	do	Private instruction	Mrs. Dale Warner.	1	....	....	....	...
1288	do	do	H. Baldwin Dean	1	....	3	....	6
1289	do	Sander's School of Phonography.	J. W. Sanders	2	41	31	13	16
1290	La Crosse	La Crosse Business College.	Linnie P. Wallace.	1	6	15	3	...
1291	do	Private instruction	Mrs. E. M. Tuthill.	1	....	....	1	2
1292	Madison	Northwestern Business College.	E. T. Heassler	1	12	19	....	...
1292½	Marinette	Private instruction	Mrs. Mattie D. Cressey.	1	....	3	....	3
1293	Milwaukee	Charles Mayer's Commercial College.	Charles Mayer	3	22	24	....	...
1294	do	Gabelsberger-Richter Shorthand Society, Concordia Literary Society.	Gustav Wollaeger, jr.	1	....	....	12	..
1295	do	McDonald's Central College.	Alex. C. McDonald.	2	100		25	
1296	do	Milwaukee High School.	Jane Bowen Passmore.	1	46	36	....	...
1297	do	Spencerian Business College.	Miss Sue V. Brown	2	15	49	8	1
1298	do	Wilmot's Business and Shorthand College.	H. M. Wilmot	2	20	45	8	6

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1889	25	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (2)	6 months	36	$2.50 per month	1221
Feb. 3, 1890	15	Haven's phonography.	Caligraph	3 months	52	$50 for course	1222
1887	*40	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (2), Caligraph (3), Hammond (1).	5 months	52	$40	1223
Mar. 14, 1888	24	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 months	52	$50	1224
1878	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		About 3 months.		Various	1225
May 2, 1890	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost (1)				1226
1876	*140	do	Hammond (1), Remington (1).	1 year	40	$8 for study per annum, $40 for complete academic course.	1227
Jan. 27, 1887	*60	do		20 weeks	40		1223
Mar. 1, 1890	78	Graham's phonography.	Remington (6)	3 to 6 mos.	48	$15 per month	1229
1890		Graham's, Pitman's, and Munson's phonography.	Remington and Hammond.	6 months	52	$60 scholarship	1230
Oct., 1889	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.					1231
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond			50 cents a lesson	1232
1884	*50	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 months	40	$56	1233
Nov. 12, 1889	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	6 months		25 cents a lesson	1234
Sept. 3, 1889	12	Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	39 weeks	39	$10 per term of 13 weeks.	1235
Jan. 1, 1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do			75 cents per lesson.	1236
Sept. 30, 1889	5	Graham's phonography.	do	1 school year.	36	$18	1237
Oct., 1885	*95	Munson's phonography.	Remington (3)	9 months	52		1238
Sept. 11, 1889	8	Cross's shorthand	Remington (1)	1 season	36	$15 for course	1239
Sept. 12, 1889	16	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (3), Remington (1).	2 years	36	$30 full course	1240
	3	do	None			Nominal	1241
Sept., 1889	6	Scott-Browne's phonography.		2 years		Included in regular course.	1242
Sept. 9, 1889	26	Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months	52	$30 for 3 months	1243
Oct. 1, 1888	42	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Caligraph (3), Remington (1).	5 to 8 mos.	40	$7.50 per month private instruction; $5 per mo. in class.	1244
	14	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 to 9 mos.		50 cents per lesson.	1245

Statistics of instruction in shorthand in th

[Estim

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of s			
					Day.		Even ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	WISCONSIN—con.							
1299	Oshkosh	Private instruction	Emma Loper	1	....	1	2	
1300	Prairie du Chien	St. Mary's Institute	.....	....	....	*10	....	
1301	Rhinelander	Private instruction	A. F. Easton	1	....	....	4	
1302	Ripon	Ripon School of Shorthand.	Miss Alice Lindenzweig.	1	8	5	2	
1303	Sheboygan	Sheboygan Business College.	Mrs. M. C. Patten	1	2	7	6	
1304	Stoughton	Stoughton Academy	Jens P. Peterson	2	7	10	....	
1305	Watertown	Private instruction	Elmer Beynon	1	....	....	5	
1306	....do	....do	John A. Beynon	1	....	....	8	
1307	Waukesha	Waukesha Business College.	T. J. Williams	2	7	7	4	
1308	Wausau	Wausau Business College and Academy.	C. M. Boyles	1	14	11	....	
1309	West Superior	Burnett's Business College.	L. Burnett	2	30	50	15	
	WYOMING.							
1310	Red Canyon	Private instruction	H. J. Groutage	1	....	....	20	

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Oct. 1888	32	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	1 term	25	$4	1246
Apr. 1890	12	do	None			$3 per month	1247
Nov. 1882	*150	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	5 months		$25 for 40 lessons	1248
1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.		6 months	9	5 per month	1249
Jan. 1890	11	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None		52	$3 per month for 2 lessons each week.	1250
Sept. 1, 1889	12	Pernin's short hand.	Remington and People's	1 year	10	$1 per month	1251
May 6, 1887	57	Barnes's phonography.	Remington, (1), Yost (2), National (1).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$50 full course	1252
Feb. 15, 1890	15	McKee's shorthand.	Yost, Remington, Caligraph, and Smith.	3 to 4 mos.	52	$50	1253
	19	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	1 year	52	$2 per month	1254
May 11, 1890	5	Mulvey's shorthand.	Remington (2)	3 months	12 to 14	$25 full course	1255
Sept. 1, 1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	18 months.	36	$12 for 9 months	1256
Sept. 27, 1889	11	Scovil's shorthand	Caligraph (2)	7 months	28	$30	1257
July 5, 1889	39	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington and Caligraph.	3 to 5 mos.	52	$40	1258
	*200	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington		52	$10 per month	1259
Apr. 1890	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do		52	$5 per month	1260
Sept. 1889	5	do	Remington (1)		38	$1.25 per week	1261
Dec. 1887	71	Munson's phonography. *b*	Remington	6 months	52	$50	1262
Sept. 1888	87	Graham's, Pitman's, and Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (3)	4 to 6 mos.	42	$40 for 6 months	1263
Oct. 21, 1889	21	Bronson's phonography.	Remington	About 4 months.		$35 for course	1264
Sept. 1889	6	Graham's phonography.	None	1 school year.	39	$15 for 13 weeks	1265
Sept. 1888	15	do	Remington (1)	1 year	39	$25 per quarter	1266
1884		Benn Pitman's phonography.	None	10 months	40	$10	1267
1882		do		1 year	40	50 cents per week	1268
		Isaac Pitman's phonography.		40 weeks	40	$10	1269
Sept. 1888	*100	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	3 months	40	$7 to $15	1270
Oct. 15, 1888	43	do	Caligraph (2)	4 to 5 mos		$25	1271

b Since the time specified the Pernin system has been taught, and Remington, Caligraph, Hammond, and Smith typewriters used.

SHORTHAND INSTRUCTION.

Shorthand has been disseminated in the United States large
ne efforts of those who, believing it to be worthy of adoption
f its general usefulness, have taught it to others without
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Attention is particularly called to the great variety of
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hom have been repeatedly printed, has not had his only e
litorial fancy. This indiscriminate instruction has brought

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
1887	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.			40	$20 per year	1272
Sept., 1888	6	do	None				1273
Oct. 14, 1889	6	do	Caligraph				1274
	50	do		1 year		$5	1275
1875		Graham's and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	do	52	$100	1276
		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	4 months		$20 for 24 lessons	1277
Sept., 1883	150	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (5)	4 to 6 mos.	52	$40	1278
1888	4	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph	4 months		$12	1279
Oct. 15, 1888	51	Osgoodby's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 to 12 mos	40	$25 for 3 months	1280
1887	50	Graham's phonography.	Remington	6 to 7 mos.	51	$50 for 6 months	1281
	14	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	3 to 6 mos.		$25 for 3 months	1282
Apr. 2, 1888	70	Munson's phonography.	Remington (2)	4 months	52	$30 for 6 months	1283
Sept., 1884		Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Caligraph	About 6 months.	44	$15 for 3 months	1284
Apr. 9, 1888	38	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2)	4 to 6 mos.	50	$50	1285
1883	643	Cross's shorthand and Graham's phonography.	Remington (8)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$40	1286
		Cross's shorthand.	Remington			$25	1287
1880	9	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months			1288
1888	132	Graham's phonography.	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).	do	52	$40	1289
Sept., 1887	123	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (1)	do	52	$40 for scholarship	1290
1886	20	Graham's phonography.	do	3 months		$35	1291
1885	148	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph (5).	5 months	52	$45 for 5 months or $10 per month.	1292
	7	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1)	3 months		$25 for 3 months	1292½
1876		Graham's phonography.	Remington, Caligraph, Hammond and Crandall (16).	6 to 8 mos.	42	$50 for 4 months, each additional month, $10.	1293
July, 1889	12	Gabelsberger-Richter stenography.		4 months		50 cents per month fee for membership.	1294
Sept., 1883	*1000	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington and Caligraph.	4 to 6 mos.	52	$12 per month, day; $8, evening.	1295
Sept., 1885	*400	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	3 years	36	Free	1296
1883	175 since 1887.	do	Remington (8)	6 months	43	$65 for 6 months	1297
1881		do	Hammond (1)	4 to 6 mos.	50	$30 to $40	1298

preparatory study and practice of shorthand, in order to make a fairly
ensis, as must be given to the preparatory study and practice of ho
order to make a fairly good farrier? Is the work of the amanuensis
ably inferior to that of the barber that it can be mastered with a sma
diture of mental power and technical drill as measured by time? If a
so, we would earnestly entreat him to be true to his higher ideal and t
a good barber or cook (for many of which there is still room in the w
manfully resist the temptation to sink into the position of a mere thre
nographer.

That all teachers of shorthand should give preliminary ex
to applicants before undertaking instruction is beyond qu
an inquiry as to the number of schools providing sucl
resulted in obtaining information of very few and these f
institutions offering free instruction.

The Free School in Stenography for Women of the Co
New York, has held such examinations for several years.
must be at least 18 and not over 35 years of age.

Mr. L. C. L. Jordan, assistant secretary, writes:

We have no regular examination papers for admission to the class in
I examine about forty applicants at once. They are first required
name, age, and address at the head of the page. Then they are asked to
of application for a position as stenographer. After this I dictate
well-written editorials from some first-class newspaper. A page of f
of original matter on some given subject or subjects completes the
Simple as the above is, it is astonishing that not more than one out
applicants, who for the most part are graduates or students in the higher
public schools, can give a sufficiently good account of themselves to e
pass. The penmanship is a matter of great importance, as well as
facility with which applicants handle a pen or pencil.

Examinations for admission to the shorthand class of
Women's Christian Association, New York, are conducted
ance with suggestions of Mrs. E. B. Burnz, as follows:

Seat thirty or more applicants, each at a separate desk, in the larg
three large sheets of paper and pen and ink before each, no pencils or r
allowed. Forbid all communication with each other during the exami
examiner, to insure this, must not leave the room. As a test of spe
sentences like the following, to be written on one sheet. Tell them t
sentence with a capital and place a period at the close:

Sulphur is highly inflammable. I gave a nickel for the fossil.
Glass is neither ductile nor malleable, unless heated.
He leaped from the precipice into the abyss.
I have catarrh and can not sing to the guitar.
At the siege of Paris the military maneuvers were admirable.
I will give one specimen of her ridiculous suspicions.
The balance of the stationery was damaged.
It is possible that Her Majesty will confer the privilege.
Remove this collection of miscellaneous rubbish.
A recipe is not a receipt.
Madam Joy possesses a brilliant intellect.
Such an exhibition is without a parallel.
The scent of that bouquet makes me sneeze.
My conscience pursued me for the falsehood.

for the scholastic year ended June 30, 1890—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
June 8, 1889	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington			$1 for three lessons	1299
1885	*50	Haven's phonography.	Remington (2)			$25 for 5 months	1300
Nov., 1889	10	Lindsley's tachygraphy.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).				1301
June, 1890	24	Moran's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	48	$35; by mail, $30	1302
Apr. 11, 1887	29	Stenograph	Remington (1)	Average 20 weeks.	40	$15 for 10 weeks, day; $10, evening.	13 3
Jan., 1889	17	Benn Pitman's phonography modified and Graham's phonography.	do	1 year	36	$6 per term	1304
1887	16	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	6 months		$50 for 6 months	1305
Oct. 1, 1889	10	do	Remington (2), Caligraph (1).	do	26	do	1306
Nov. 2, 1880	40	do	Remington (2)	do	50	$8 per month	1307
Nov., 1886	55	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2), Yost (1), Hammond (1).	8 months	48	$40 for full course; $5 for 4 weeks.	1308
Mar. 1, 1890	80	McKee's shorthand.	Remington	3 months for an amanuensis.	50	$50 for 6 months	1309
1884	27	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	3 months		$5 per quarter	1310

SHORTHAND INSTRUCTION.

Shorthand has been disseminated in the United States largely through the efforts of those who, believing it to be worthy of adoption on account of its general usefulness, have taught it to others without regard to compensation.

Professional stenographers have at all times been engaged more or less in giving instruction, either in their offices or in connection with educational institutions, and hundreds of persons have thus received practical lessons. The Christian Brothers and other orders have long been noted for the thorough instruction in the art imparted by them in Catholic schools.

Attention is particularly called to the great variety of institutions which now give shorthand courses in connection with other branches, and to the number of public schools, especially in evening classes, which afford instruction in this specialty. The art is now generally included in the curriculum of studies embraced in evening classes of the Young Men's Christian Associations.

Probably not more than one person out of a hundred who take up the study of shorthand is physically and mentally qualified to make a verbatim reporter. The number of those who are able to fit themselves as office shorthand clerks is however solely dependent upon qualifications entirely apart from a knowledge of swift writing. In other words, any intelligent person with a good general education is capable of learning enough of the art to make a successful business amanuensis.

In very few schools is there an established standard for graduation, and even in such as maintain a definite degree of proficiency this requirement varies greatly. It will thus be seen that the figures given in the column showing "time required for completion of course" may refer to a variable standard of proficiency or may simply mean that, within the time stated, *some* students have been able to secure employment as stenographic clerks.

The growth of shorthand instruction, following its rapidly extended use, has been perhaps the greatest educational movement of recent times. The business men of the United States so quickly and so generally availed themselves of the benefits of the art that there was not a sufficient number of properly qualified amanuenses to meet the demand. This condition of affairs (obviously one of short duration) is passing away, and the "professor" who had learned all he knew of shorthand in six weeks or less, but who was benefited by the unprecedented demand for stenographers, does not now find it so easy to decoy ignorant persons into the study of an art for which only those naturally intelligent and having a good English education are fitted, even in the lowest grades of business amanuenses. It must be confessed that the shorthand teacher who keeps "one lesson ahead of his class," references to whom have been repeatedly printed, has not had his only existence in editorial fancy. This indiscriminate instruction has brought discredit

upon shorthand writers generally, for it has filled many portions of our country with so-called stenographers having a partial knowledge of the art and able to move the carriage of a typewriter, but who are destitute of many of the essential qualifications of amanuenses. The salaries regarded as satisfactory by these "three months' graduates" are, it is true, but little higher than those paid office and errand boys, but business men soon become weary of revising their work and correcting their errors, and they are set adrift to seek new victims of their incompetency. The Chicago Herald says, editorially, "The country is overrun with a plague of inaccurate stenographers, whose errors lead merchants into trouble and entangle courts in conflicting testimony. Check must be put upon the army of incompetents."

The "Shorthand Writer" for May, 1891, says, in an editorial commenting upon the above, "The evil has become so great that some action is forced upon us."

The editor of "The Phonographic Magazine," in November, 1890, writes as follows:

The impression was formerly almost universal, but is now rapidly fading, that in order to secure and hold a good position as a shorthand clerk one needs but to learn to write rapidly. At no time has this single qualification been sufficient to make a successful stenographer, and its insufficiency was never more apparent than to-day. Some years ago, indeed, a very modest mental furniture might suffice to bolster up the uneducated shorthand writer who could take dictations, but nowadays the increased pressure for the best places and the enlightened judgment of employers are such as to demand of all applicants at least *four* fundamental accomplishments, which must be acquired by hard study and which do not "come by nature."

These qualifications are specified as (1) correct spelling, (2) correct grammar, (3) good business form, and (4) a rapid and legible longhand or skill in the use of the typewriter.

A teacher, in sending in his report of instruction, writes:

Equipped with a knowledge of composition, punctuation, etc., the student of shorthand enters the field of phonographic preferment as assured of ultimate success as was David of old. Lacking these important needfuls, dark indeed is his way, slow his progress, and, unless endowed with an indomitable will, in the end he finds only disappointment and distress. I fancy that statistics of the art of shorthand would be incomplete without some reference to the imposition which is practiced upon the unwary in the form of "systems mastered in one month" and "reporting skill in three months." The advertisers of such boons (heaven save the mark) can not be too severely handled.

The following statement in The Phonographic Magazine for March, 1891, is particularly pertinent:

What sane man would think of offering his services as a plumber, a carpenter, or a barber after an apprenticeship of three months? What sensible young woman would presume to call herself a dressmaker or a cook within that quarter of a year in which she makes her first acquaintance with the work of such an occupation? Ought it to seem plausible to the uninitiated that the mental and technical requisites of the shorthand writer in business as an amanuensis are so much more limited and meager than those of practitioners of the trades we have named as to justify the idea that time is a hardly appreciable element in his preparation for his work? Does it not seem reasonable to suppose that at least as much time must be given to the

preparatory study and practice of shorthand, in order to make a fairly good amanuensis, as must be given to the preparatory study and practice of horseshoeing in order to make a fairly good farrier? Is the work of the amanuensis so immeasurably inferior to that of the barber that it can be mastered with a smaller expenditure of mental power and technical drill as measured by time? If anyone thinks so, we would earnestly entreat him to be true to his higher ideal and try to become a good barber or cook (for many of which there is still room in the world), and to manfully resist the temptation to sink into the position of a mere three-months stenographer.

That all teachers of shorthand should give preliminary examinations to applicants before undertaking instruction is beyond question, yet an inquiry as to the number of schools providing such tests has resulted in obtaining information of very few and these generally in institutions offering free instruction.

The Free School in Stenography for Women of the Cooper Union, New York, has held such examinations for several years. Applicants must be at least 18 and not over 35 years of age.

Mr. L. C. L. Jordan, assistant secretary, writes:

We have no regular examination papers for admission to the class in stenography. I examine about forty applicants at once. They are first required to write their name, age, and address at the head of the page. Then they are asked to write a letter of application for a position as stenographer. After this I dictate slowly a few well-written editorials from some first-class newspaper. A page of foolscap paper of original matter on some given subject or subjects completes the examination. Simple as the above is, it is astonishing that not more than one out of six of the applicants, who for the most part are graduates or students in the higher grades of the public schools, can give a sufficiently good account of themselves to enable them to pass. The penmanship is a matter of great importance, as well as the ease and facility with which applicants handle a pen or pencil.

Examinations for admission to the shorthand class of the Young Women's Christian Association, New York, are conducted in accordance with suggestions of Mrs. E. B. Burnz, as follows:

Seat thirty or more applicants, each at a separate desk, in the large room, with three large sheets of paper and pen and ink before each, no pencils or rubbers being allowed. Forbid all communication with each other during the examination. The examiner, to insure this, must not leave the room. As a test of spelling, dictate sentences like the following, to be written on one sheet. Tell them to begin each sentence with a capital and place a period at the close:

Sulphur is highly inflammable. I gave a nickel for the fossil.
Glass is neither ductile nor malleable, unless heated.
He leaped from the precipice into the abyss.
I have catarrh and can not sing to the guitar.
At the siege of Paris the military maneuvers were admirable.
I will give one specimen of her ridiculous suspicions.
The balance of the stationery was damaged.
It is possible that Her Majesty will confer the privilege.
Remove this collection of miscellaneous rubbish.
A recipe is not a receipt.
Madam Joy possesses a brilliant intellect.
Such an exhibition is without a parallel.
The scent of that bouquet makes me sneeze.
My conscience pursued me for the falsehood.

After this, say: "Now, please take another sheet of paper and write a letter which I shall dictate to you. Take it down exactly as I say the words. The number of the house, street, city, State, and the date are to be put in their proper places. Write slowly and carefully, because you can have but one sheet of paper. When I have done dictating conclude the letter in your usual way and sign your own name."

No. 7 E. 15TH STREET, NEW YORK,
September 11, 1890.

My DEAR MRS. FISH: Being informed that you have decided to remove into the country, I shall feel under obligation if you will inform me as to the interior of the house you occupy at 93 Madison avenue. How many rooms are there on each of the three floors? Are the parlor and kitchen of suitable size for a family of eight persons? Are the washtubs movable or stationary? Does the dumb-waiter work smoothly, and are there facilities for thoroughly ventilating every apartment? Is the dining room sufficiently large to admit of a party of, say, twenty guests being comfortably seated? How many will the dormitories accommodate, should you think, on an emergency? A complete and speedy reply will be appreciated by,

Yours truly, ——— ———.

After each has signed her letter, request them to take the remaining sheet, and write a reply to each question asked in the foregoing letter, in the order in which it was stated. They may be permitted to refer to the first letter so as to reply seriatim. Tell them to begin by imagining that each girl is "Mrs. Fish," and therefore putting the Madison avenue residence at the beginning of the letter. Then each addresses herself and replies to the questions as she chooses, signing Mrs. Fish's name at the end.

An exercise like this will test the applicant's knowledge of spelling, capitalizing, punctuation, grammar, use of words, and facility of imagination; the latter being really an ability to adapt oneself to surroundings, and this is very important in business life.

When the sentences and the first and second letter have been written, let each girl pin her three papers together, and give them up at once. Let no one take anything written away. It is best to have large-sized sheets, so as to hold all that is dictated, as some persons write a large hand or spread their writing. But I think it is best to limit the girls to one sheet for each of the three exercises, and allow no second beginning to anyone. A fairer estimate of the comparative ability of each individual applicant can thus be made.

Of course various sentences containing words liable to be misspelled and letters to be answered can be arranged, and the examiner should have several on hand for different occasions. My idea in presenting these suggestions is to give a fair but thorough test of the education and ability of each applicant, with the least expenditure of time and labor on the part of the examiner. A short editorial from some leading paper is also given as a dictation.

The marked success which has attended the efforts of Mr. W. L. Mason, the teacher of the Female Stenographic Class of the General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen of New York, is no doubt largely due to the carefully prepared preliminary examinations which have weeded out those unfitted to practice the art. "Great stress," Mr. Mason states, "is laid on educational qualifications for the study of shorthand and typewriting in our school, and each applicant is required to pass a moderately difficult examination in the simple English branches, such as spelling, grammar, punctuation, and composition."

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into wh

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	ALABAMA.							
1	Greenville	Private instruction	Robert Pentland	1	5			
2	Montgomery	St. Mary of Loretto School.	Sister Prudentia	1		13		
	ARKANSAS.							
3	Arkadelphia	Arkadelphia Methodist College.	Ruth Johnson	1	9	3		
4	do	Ouachita Baptist College.	Miss Lucy M. Yager.	1			6	12
5	Conway	Hendrix College	Lenoir Hunt	1	8	1	1	
6	Rally Hill	Rally Hill Academy	Albert Alleman	1	12	3		
	CALIFORNIA.							
7	Blocksburg	Private instruction	Geo. Perry	1			1	5
8	Oakland	do	Miss K. C. Pfluger	1	2	10		
8½	Orange	Orange County Collegiate Institute.	E. R. Andrews	1	2	1		
9	Redding	Private instruction	M. E. Rigby	1	15	17		
10	San Jose	Bowen's Business College.	Miss Kate Paxton	1	2	8		2
11	do	Willow Glen School of Shorthand, Willow Glen Day School.	H. F. Barnette	1			9	3
12	Santa Clara	Santa Clara College	Thomas Heffron and H. O'Donnell.	2	23			
	COLORADO.							
13	Denver	Jarvis Hall Military Academy.	G. M. P. Pridham, A. B.	1				
	CONNECTICUT.							
14	Ansonia	Private instruction	Chas. E. Pickett	1			20	11
15	do	do	F. J. Pope	1		11	6	
16	do	Young Men's Christian Association.	Norman Knight	2	19	2		
17	Bridgeport	Park Avenue Institute.	Will P. Hopkins	1	6			
18	do	Private instruction	do	1	7			
19	Meriden	do	Misses Anna L. Brand and Agnes J. Beane.	2	4	6		
20	do	Curtis School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	B. S. Curtis	1	1	5	7	4
21	Norwich	Norwich Free Academy	Helen Marshall Lathrop.	1	10	6		
22	West Winsted	Private instruction	James P. Glynn	1			5	1
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.							
22½	Washington	High School (colored)	Mary Wall	2	40	20		
23	do	A. C. Starin's Business College.	A. C. Starin	2	12	22	18	8

hand *was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891.*

icated by an asterisk (*).

Total	Date of introduction of study	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge f
5	Mar. 1, 1891	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	3 months.	12	$1 per w
13	Nov. 1, 1890	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	.....	40	$10 per
12	Sept. 3, 1890	18	Cross's shorthand	Yost (1)	3 to 4 mos	38	$5 per m
18	Sept. 1890	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3) .	1 year ...	40	$50 per
10	Oct., 1890	10	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (2) .	6 to 9 mos.	24 to 36	$4 per m
15	Oct., 1890	15	Isaac Pitman's phonography, modified.	....	6 months.	36	$1 per m
6	....	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	.....	.....	
12	July 29, 1890	12	Isaac Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 to 8 mos ...		$8 per $40 month
3	Sept., 1890	3	McKee's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)	6 months..	40	$15 per
33	.. do .	33	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months..	..	$8 per m
12	Sept. 15 1890	12	Cross' shorthand	Remington (1), Caligraph (2).	.....	50	$50 for s
17	Jan., 1891	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Yost.	6 months.	40	$10 per
23	Aug. 1 1890	23	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 months..	42	$5 per m
5	Sept. 4, 1890	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	2 years.....	40	$20.....
31	... ...	31	Munson's phonography.	Remington	1 year.....		50 cents
17	Feb. 1 1891	17	Benn Pitman's phonography	.....	6 months..	..	$5 for 20
22	Nov.. 1890	22	Graham's phonography	None	6 to 12 mos	..	(Membe Assoc
6	Nov 4, 1890	19	do . . .	Caligraph	.. .	36	$10 per short 60 cents
12	Oct., 1890	7	do	.. do	....		
	.. do .. .	10	Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months	52	$20 for or $8
18	Dec 12, 1890	18	Graham's phonography	Caligraph .	6 mos. day; 1 yr. evenings.	52	$60.....
16	Oct 1 1890	16	Allen's phonography.	Remington	20 weeks	.	. . .
6	Jan 5 1891	6	Munson's phonography.	Remington (5) .	1 year .	40	$25 . .
60	Jan 1 1891	60	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (2) .	2 years .	76	Free ..
55	Nov 1 1890	55	Benn Pitman's phonography	Caligraph and Remington	4 to 6 mos	40	$10 for

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into wi

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA—cont'd.							
24	Washington	Private instruction	Fannie A Weeks	1	2	....	25	2
25	....do	Washington Business High School.	Mrs. F. Y. Baldwin	1	160	150	....	...
	GEORGIA.							
26	Athens	Athens Business College and School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	W. F. Jordan	1	6	4	....	...
27	Dalton	Dalton Public School	Mrs. E. S. Self	1	....	....	....	...
	IDAHO.							
28	Boise	Private instruction	Mrs. Justin Gilbert.	1	8	2	....	...
	ILLINOIS.							
29	Belvidere	High school	J. G. Cross	1	....	....	....	...
30	Cairo	Private instruction	Katie Hofmann	1	2	4	....	...
31	Dana	Dana Shorthand Class, Dana Public School.	A. W. Fulton	1	5	7	....	...
32	DuQuoin	Private instruction	Mrs. W. H. Davidson.	1	3	5	2	1
33	Elgin	....do	J. G. Cross	2	....	....	....	...
34	Ewing	Ewing College	Miss Jennie M. Cooper.	1	2	....	....	...
35	Flora	Orchard City College of Shorthand, Orchard City Normal and Business College.	Ed. A. Greenlaw	1	....	....	....	...
36	Greenville	Private instruction	H. B. Morriss	1	....	....	1	2
37	Kankakee	....do	J. G. Cross	2	....	....	....	...
38	Kewanee	Young Men's Christian Association.	....do	2	....	....	....	...
39	Marengo	Private instruction	....do	1	....	....	....	...
40	Pittsfield	Hoover's Shorthand School, Pittsfield High School.	A. B. Hoover	1	7	3	....	...
41	Port Byron	Port Byron Academy	J. P. Odell	1	3	3	....	...
42	Princeton	Princeton High School.	J. G. Cross	2	....	....	....	...
43	Quincy	Chaddock College of Stenography and Typewriting.	S. L. McCrary	1	....	....	....	...
44	Rockford	Private instruction	Miss Etta Kuhpfahl.	1	....	....	2	3
45	Rock Island	Augustana Business College.	P. G. Sjöblom	1	1	6	....	...
46	Springfield	Private instruction	Miss Lucy D. Warring.	1	....	4	....	...
47	Tuscola	....do	Miss Dell W. Bullington.	1	....	....	....	3
48	Vandalia	Vandalia Business College	C. F. Parkinson	1	18	7	....	...
49	Waukegan	Private instruction	J. G. Cross	1	....	....	....	...

rthand *was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891*—Continued.

dicated by an asterisk (*).

Total.	Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge
29	Sept., 1890	...	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph.....	.....	....	$2 and $
310	....do	300	Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.	Remington (5). Caligraph (5). Hammond (2). Smith (1).	2 years ...	36	None ..
10	Aug. 1, 1890	10	Munson's phonography and Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph.....	2 to 3 mos	51	$10 for
4	Sept. 1, 1890	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) ..	4 to 5 mos	40	$30.....
11	.....	10	Gilbert's phonography.	Remington	4 months	52	$15 per
20	Mar. 20, 1891	20	Cross's shorthand.	.....	10 lessons	..	$10.....
6	Jan. 12, 1891	11	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) Caligraph (1).	3 to 4 mos	..	$10 a mo sons a month a day.
12	Sept. 1 1890	12	do	.....	3 to 4 mos.	36	Free to public
11	Dec., 1890	11	Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (1) ..	4 months .	43	$25.....
48	Jan. 10, 1891	48	Cross's shorthand	.....	.....	...	$10.....
2	Jan. 1891	2	Sloan Duployan shorthand.	Caligraph	2 terms ..	39	$12 per
20	Sept. 1, 1890	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....do	6 months	4	$20 for
3	1890.....	.....	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	.....	3 to 4 mos	...	$40.. ..
22	Sept. 30, 1890	23	Cross's shorthand.	.....	10 lessons	..	$10.....
15	Nov. 1, 1890	15	....do	.....	do ..	..	$10 .
12	Mar. 3, 1891	12	do	.....	do .	....	$10.....
10	Oct., 1890	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	5 months	...	$25 for
6	Sept., 1890	6	Cross's shorthand	do	3 months	38	$10 per
55	... do	55	do	.....	1 year	.....	Free...
3 8	Sept. 8, 1890	8	Pencil or machine system	Remington (2). Smith (1	. .. .	10	$8 for 20 class.
5	Oct., 1890	5	Cross's shorthand	Remington (1)	10 to 12 weeks.	...	$10 per
7	Sept. 1, 1890	7	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (3)	6 months	36	$22 for $30 fo
4	Jan. 1, 1891	4	Isaac Pitman's phonography	... .	months .	.	75 cents priva
3	Sept. 18, 1890	3	Cross's shorthand	Remington (1)	30 lessons	..	$40 for
2 27	Sept 1890	27	do . .	Remington .	20 weeks	46	$30 for $10 fo ing.
17	Feb. 15, 1891	17	do ...	..	30 lessons		$10.....

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into whi

[Estimate

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	INDIANA.							
50	Columbus	Private instruction	Maggie Dunlap	1			4	9
51	Indianapolis	Young Men's Christian Association.	H. E. Layton	1			13	
52	Muncie	Howard's Business College.	J. W. Howard	2	45	15		
53	Petersburg	Private instruction	Miss Lillian Murfitt.	1	1	7	4	
54	Rensselaer	St. Joseph Indian Normal School.	Andrew Gietl	1	15			
55	Richmond	St. Mary's Academy	Sisters of Providence.	2		20		
56	Vincennes	St. Rose's Academy	do	1		35		
57	Winchester	Private instruction	C. M. Watts	1		2	4	1
	IOWA.							
58	College Springs	Amity Commercial College of Amity College.	A. Ogier	1	3	6		
59	Corning	Corning Academy	Ira S. Condit	1	6	4		
60	Leon	Leon High School, private instruction.	Mrs. Lenna F. Huston.	1	2	1		
61	Red Oak	Red Oak Business College.	Mrs. H. C. Carver	1				
62	Sioux City	College of Commerce, University of the Northwest.	Julia M. Fay	2	12	48		
63	Woodward	Private instruction	E. Rowley	1			6	2
	KANSAS.							
64	Baldwin	Bond's School of Shorthand and Typewriting, Baker University.	Mabel Brockett	1	2	6		
65	Fort Scott	Bryant's College of Music and Literature.	D. De F. Bryant	1	4	11		
66	Gove City	Public school, Thirty fifth District.	Albert J. Boyce	1	3	1		
67	Howard	Private instruction	C. L. McKesson	1	2	6	4	3
68	Junction City	do	Geo. R. Faringly	1		1	4	
69	Manhattan	do	H. E. Moore	1	1			
70	Merrill	Merrill College	Belle M. Cleveland	1	2	1		
71	Osborne	Private instruction	Joseph H. Young	1	5	4		
72	Webster	Webster School of Shorthand	J. F. Mullaney	1	3	1	11	1
	KENTUCKY.							
73	Cecilia	Cecilian College	F. E. Blalock	1	22	3		
74	Louisville	Weaver's Business College.	Clarence M. Gordon.	1		11	2	2

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Mar. 1, 1891	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	3 months..	12	$1 per week.....	1
Nov. 1, 1890	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	.....	40	$10 per quarter ...	2
Sept. 3, 1890	18	Cross's shorthand.	Yost (1)	3 to 4 mos.	38	$5 per month	3
Sept. 1890	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3) ...	1 year.....	40	$50 per year	4
Oct., 1890	10	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	6 to 9 mos.	24 to 36	$4 per month.....	5
Oct., 1890	15	Isaac Pitman's phonography, modified.	.....	6 months..	36	$1 per month.....	6
.....	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond	.....	....	.....	7
July 29, 1890	12	Isaac Pitman's and Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 to 8 mos.	....	$8 per month, or $40 for six months.	8
Sept., 1890	3	McKee's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)	6 months..	40	$15 per term	8½
....do	33	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph.....	6 months..	....	$8 per month.....	9
Sept. 15, 1890	12	Cross' shorthand .	Remington (1), Caligraph (2).	.....	50	$50 for six months.	10
Jan., 1891	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Yost.	6 months..	40	$10 per month	11
Aug. 1, 1890	23	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	6 months..	42	$5 per month.....	12
Sept. 4, 1890	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	2 years....	40	$20.....	13
.....	31	Munson's phonography.	Remington	1 year.....	....	50 cents per lesson.	14
Feb. 1, 1891	11	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	6 months..	...	$5 for 20 lessons ..	15
Nov., 1890	22	Graham's phonography.	None	6 to 12 mos.	....	(Membership in Association.)	16
Nov. 4, 1890	19	....do	Caligraph.....	.....	36	$10 per quarter, shorthand only.	17
Oct., 1890	7	....do	....do	.....	....	60 cents per lesson.	18
....do	10	Munson's phonography.	Remington	6 months..	52	$20 for 3 months, or $8 per month.	19
Dec. 12, 1890	18	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph.....	6 mos. day; 1 yr. evenings.	52	$60.....	20
Oct. 1, 1890	16	Allen's phonography.	Remington	20 weeks..	....	.....	21
Jan. 5 1891	6	Munson's phonography.	Remington (3) ...	1 year.....	40	$25.....	22
Jan. 1, 1891	60	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (8) ...	2 years....	36	Free.....	22½
Nov. 1, 1890	55	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph and Remington.	4 to 6 mos.	40	$10 for 3 months ..	23

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into wh

[Estimat

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of st			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	LOUISIANA.							
75	New Orleans	Leland University	W. H. Lewis	1	6	9	...	...
76	...do	St. Isidore's College	Rev. M. Lee	1	...	...	...	...
	MAINE.							
77	Augusta	Private instruction	Frank A. Small	1	2	1	...	...
78	Mechanic Falls	...do	Harry Fielding	1	...	...	18	1
79	Portland	Shaw's Business College.	Isabel S. Spear	1	11	9	...	...
	MARYLAND.							
80	Baltimore	St. Vincent's School	Sister Alrosia	2	...	...	...	.
81	Damascus	Private instruction	R. F. Day	1	2	...	1	
	MASSACHUSETTS.							
82	Ashburnham	Cushing Academy	Cora E. Reynolds	1	6	7	...	.
83	Everett	Courtland St. Chapel.	W. F. Warren	1	...	...	...	
84	Gilbertville	Private instruction	E. M. Marsh	1	...	...	4	
85	Gloucester	Gloucester High School.	Miss Maria B. Smith.	2	30	34	...	..
86	Lawrence	Young Men's Christian Association.	Walter Fox	1	...	...	16	..
87	Lowell	Lowell Evening High School.	Miss Blanche Hard	1	...	...	*25	*2
88	Pittsfield	Young Men's Christian Association.	Miss Angie E. Bardin.	1	...	...	5	..
89	Warren	Private instruction	Fred E. Cook	1	...	...	2	
90	Worcester	...do	F. R. Heath	1	...	...	7	..
	MICHIGAN.							
91	Detroit	Detroit College	John Tice	2	210	...	...	..
92	...do	National Shorthand Institute.	T. J. Allen	1	6	17	4	1
93	Escanaba	Private instruction	E. C. Cayo	1	...	...	...	..
94	Ishpeming	Ishpeming University of Business.	May Ella Hodge	1	...	2	2	..
95	Kalamazoo	Teller's School of Stenography, Teller's Business College.	Mrs. W. P. Teller	2	4	37	1	1
96	Lansing	Lansing High School	O. N. Rice	1	5	3	...	..
97	Mt. Pleasant	Mt. Pleasant Business College.	Luella M. Milliken	2	3	2	2	1
98	Ontonagon	Presbyterian Church, private instruction.	Cyril Ross	1	...	...	3	1
99	Owosso	Owosso Shorthand School.	Fred Edwards	1	...	...	16	8
100	Ypsilanti	St. John's Academy	Sisters of Providence.	2	4	25	...	..

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1890	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	.....	....	$2 and $3 per month	24
....do	300	Benn Pitman's phonography, modified.	Remington (5), Caligraph (5), Hammond (2), Smith (1).	2 years	36	None	25
Aug. 1, 1890	10	Munson's phonography and Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph	2 to 3 mos.	51	$40 for course	26
Sept. 1, 1890	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	4 to 5 mos.	40	$30	27
.....	10	Gilbert's phonography.	Remington	4 months	52	$15 per month	28
Mar. 20, 1891	20	Cross's shorthand.	.....	10 lessons.	....	$10	29
Jan. 12, 1891	11	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	3 to 4 mos.	....	$10 a month, 2 lessons a day; $5 a month, 1 lesson a day.	30
Sept. 1, 1890	12	....do	.....	3 to 4 mos.	36	Free to pupils of public school.	31
Dec., 1890	11	Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	4 months	43	$25	32
Jan. 10, 1891	48	Cross's shorthand.	.....	.....	....	$10	33
Jan. 1891	2	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	Caligraph	2 terms	39	$12 per term	34
Sept. 1, 1890	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....do	6 months	40	$20 for 12 weeks	35
1890	.....	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	.....	3 to 4 mos.	....	$40	36
Sept. 30, 1890	23	Cross's shorthand.	.....	10 lessons.	....	$10	37
Nov. 1, 1890	15	....do	.....	....do	....	$10	38
Mar. 3, 1891	12	....do	.....	....do	....	$10	39
Oct., 1890	10	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	5 months	....	$25 for full course.	40
Sept., 1890	6	Cross's shorthand.	....do	3 months	38	$10 per term	41
....do	55	....do	.....	1 year	....	Free	42
Sept. 8, 1890	8	Pencil or machine system.	Remington (2), Smith (1).	.....	40	$8 for 20 lessons in class.	43
Oct., 1890	5	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	10 to 12 weeks.	....	$10 per term	44
Sept. 1, 1890	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (3)	6 months	36	$22 for 4 months; $30 for 6 months.	45
Jan. 1, 1891	4	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	3 months	....	50 cents for each private lesson.	46
Sept. 18, 1890	3	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1)	50 lessons	....	$40 for course	47
Sept., 1890	27	....do	Remington	20 weeks	46	$30 for shorthand, $10 for typewriting.	48
Feb. 15, 1891	17	....do	.....	10 lessons.	....	$10	49

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into whi

[Estimates

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stud			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	MINNESOTA.							
01	Duluth	Yale school	Mrs. M. C. Wise	1				
02	Little Falls	Little Falls Business College.	H. L. Casey	1				
03	Minneapolis	Christian Brothers' School.	Rev. Bro. John	2	20			
04	St. Paul	Metropolitan Business School.	Miss Mamie Gill	1	25	20	16	9
	MISSISSIPPI.							
05	Aberdeen	Public schools	Miss Willie J. Word.	1	14	20		
06	Meridian	Private instruction	Miss H. Julia Smith.	1	2	8	1	1
07	Poplar Springs	do	H. W. Lantrip	1				
	MISSOURI.							
08	Appleton City	Appleton City Academy.	Emil Theilmann	1	4	2		
09	Carthage	Private instruction	Miss Ella Harrison.	1	1	4		
10	Chillicothe	Chillicothe Shorthand College, Chillicothe Normal School and Business Institute.	E. F. Fielding	1	96	22		
11	Clarksburg	Hooper Institute	Miss Lily Hooper.	1	19	1		
12	Harris	Harris College School of Shorthand, Harris College.	Miss Belle Johnson.	1	27	20		
13	Kansas City	Cathedral Commercial School.	Brother Justus	4	30			
14	do	Metropolitan School of Shorthand and Typewriting.	E. H. Rydall	1				
15	Mechanicsville	Howell Institute	R. E. Gamble	1				
16	St. Louis	Private instruction	Author J. Briggs	1			2	
17	Springfield	Bryant & Smith College.	Walker Smith	1	1	5		
18	Trenton	Avalon College	W. A. Rickenbrode.	1	6	5	5	
19	Warrensburg	Central Wesleyan College.	L. P. Frobardt	1	14			
	MONTANA.							
20	Twin Bridges	State Normal School	Mrs. L. V. Riley	1	8	2		
	NEBRASKA.							
[illegible]	Harvard	Harvard Shorthand School.	A. E. Livingston	1	3	1	3	1
[illegible]	Lincoln	Central School of Shorthand.	Bert E. Betts	2		12	3	2
[illegible]	Omaha	Holy Family School	Sister of Mercy	3		50		
24	Wahoo	Luther Academy; private instruction.	Oscar Sellberg	1			9	
	NEW HAMPSHIRE.							
[illegible]	Dover	Young Men's Christian Association.	A. O. Hall	1			10	11

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
May 1, 1890	13	Graham's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	1 year	36	$10 per term of 20 lessons.	50
Oct., 1890	13	Longley's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).			Membership in association.	51
Apr. 21, 1890	100	do	Caligraph and Remington.	6 to 12 mos	52		52
Feb. 28, 1891	12	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	125 lessons		50 cents per lesson.	53
Sept., 1890	15	Gabelsberger-Richter stenography.		2 terms	40		54
do	20	Cross's and Pernin's shorthand.	Remington		44	No extra charge	55
do	35	Pernin's shorthand.	None	1 year	40	50 cents per hour	56
Dec. 1, 1890	7	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)			50 cents per lesson.	57
Sept. 3, 1890	9	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1)	5 months	39	$1 per week	58
Jan. 6, 1891	10	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	6 months	36	$5 for 3 months shorthand; $10 for 3 months, with business branches.	59
Mar., 1891	3	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)				60
Sept. 1, 1890	9	do	Remington and Caligraph.	6 months	51	$30	61
do	60	Graham's phonography.	Remington (6), Caligraph (1).	4 to 9 mos.		$15 for 12 weeks	62
Nov., 1890	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.		10 months.		$10 to $20	63
Sept. 8, 1890	8	Graham's phonography.	Remington	9 months	40	$50	64
Sept. 1, 1890	15	Munson's phonography.	Remington (1)	4 to 6 mos.	40	$30 for shorthand for course; $10 for typewriting for course.	65
Dec. 18, 1890	4	Longley's phonography.				Free	66
Mar. 1, 1891	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	6 months	52	$24 for 6 months' course.	67
do	5	Sloan-Duployan shorthand.	National (1)	3 months	12	$30	68
Sept. 1, 1890	1	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost (1)	6 months		Free	69
Mar. 9, 1891	4	Cross's shorthand	Remington (1)	4 months		$35 for 4 months	70
Jan. 1, 1891	9	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	4 to 6 mos.		$25 for 50 lessons	71
Mar., 1891	16	do	None	10 weeks		$4 for term of 10 weeks with books.	72
Jan. 1, 1891	27	Cross's shorthand	Hammond (2), Remington (1).	5 to 6 mos.	40	$10	73
Feb. 2, 1891	20	Munson's phonography, modified.	Caligraph (4)	3 to 6 mos.	52	$40 for first 3 months, $10 per month thereafter.	74

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into whi

[Estimate

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE—continued.							
126	Epping	Hedding Academia	F. E. Rollins	1				
	NEW JERSEY.							
127	Trenton	Public high school	Charles E. Roberts	1			25	25
	NEW MEXICO.							
128	Farmington	San Juan Industrial College.	P. C. Bryce	1				
129	Las Cruces	Visitation Academy		2				
130	Las Vegas	Las Vegas Seminary	Mrs. Jennie Frey	1		6		
	NEW YORK.							
131	Batavia	Private instruction	Mabel I. Brockway	1				1
132	Brooklyn	School of Our Lady of Mercy (St. Francis's College).	Rev. Bro. Bruno, O. S. F.	1	20			
133	do	St. John's School (St. Francis's College).	Rev. Bro. Anthony, O. S. F.	1	13			
134	do	St. Peter's Academy	Rev. Bro. Pascal	1	12			
135	Ithaca	The Cascadilla School.	Wm. F. Speidel	1	8			
136	Homer	Private instruction	Ida C. Lansing	1	1	5		2
137	Middle Village	Union Free School	James Cullen	1				
138	Mount Vernon	Young Men's Christian Association.	Mrs. E. D. Costales	1			11	
139	Newburg	Mrs. E. E. Hall's Shorthand School.	Mrs. E. E. Hall	1		12	2	3
140	New York	The New York College of Phonography.	Wilbur M. Bates	3	5	4	3	9
141	do	Central Evening High School.	Henry T. Brennan	1			*125	
142	do	Headquarters Salvation Army.	Peter Glenn	1			11	
143	Norwich	Norwich Academy and Union Free School.	Myrtle E. Moncrieff.	1	2	8		6
144	Plattsburg	Plattsburg High School.	F. J. Phillips	1	10	20	(18)	
145	Rondout	St. Mary's School	Rev. Bro. Nicholas	1	6			
146	Sing Sing	Palmer's School of Stenography, and Typewriting, Palmer's Collegiate and Business College.	Fred A. Hopper	1			10	
147	Waverly	Waverly Business School and Institute of Shorthand and Typewriting.	Ella Sullivan	1	1	2		
	NORTH CAROLINA.							
148	La Grange	Kinsey Female Seminary	Miss M. F. Noell	1		12		
	NORTH DAKOTA.							
149	Grand Forks	Northwestern Institute of Shorthand, Northwestern College of Commerce.	Miss Rose A. German.	1	10	25	8	7

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Jan. 26, 1891	15	Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	8 months	35	$2 per month	75
Sept. 1, 1890	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	2 years	40	$20	76
Jan., 1891	3	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)			50 cents per lesson.	77
Jan. 12, 1891	19	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None				78
Sept. 16, 1890	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington	5 months	52		79
Sept., 1890	35	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (1)	6 months	40	$3 per month	80
Nov., 1890	4	do		4 to 6 mos.		50 cents per lesson.	81
Jan. 1, 1891	13	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2)		39	$15	82
Oct., 1890	7	Munson's phonography.		5 months		Free	83
	8	do				do	84
Sept. 1, 1890	64	Chandler's tachygraphy.	Remington (6)	1 year	40	do	85
Mar. 2, 1891	16	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		36 weeks		do	86
Oct., 1890	*60	do	Remington (6)		20	do	87
Jan., 1891	5	Benn Pitman's phonography.					88
Jan. 15, 1891	3	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	About 3 months.		$10 for 30 lessons	89
Oct. 1, 1890	10	McKee's shorthand.		20 to 30 lessons.		50 cents per lesson.	90
Sept. 1, 1890	210	Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (1), Hammond (1), Caligraph (1).	1 year	40		91
Sept. 18, 1890	42	Allen's shorthand and Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$40	92
		Benn Pitman's phonography.				$15	93
Feb. 2, 1891	4	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph	6 months	52	$50	94
July 7, 1890	48	Munson's and Benn Pitman's phonography and Pernin's shorthand.	Yost (2), Smith (1), Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	5 months	40	$35 for four months and $5 for each succeeding month.	95
May 1, 1891	9	Benn Pitman's phonography.					96
Sept. 29, 1890	8	Cross's shorthand.	Smith and Remington.	6 to 9 mos.	50	$40	97
Mar. 17, 1891	4	Isaac Pitman's phonography.				$1.50 for ten lessons	98
Jan. 10, 1891	24	Pernin's shorthand.	Smith (1), Crandall (1).	10 to 20 weeks.	36	$20 for 12 weeks	99
Sept. 5, 1890	29	Cross's shorthand.	Caligraph (1)		40	Free	100

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into wh

[Estimate

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stu			
					Day.		Even-ing.	
					Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	OHIO.							
150	Bellefontaine	First Baptist Church, private instruction.	Rev. Joseph Weston.	1			6	
151	Cleveland	Private instruction	S. Louise Patteson.	1		1		
152	do	Young Men's Christian Association (Alabama Street Railway Branch).	D. C. Mac Watters	1			9	
153	Coolville	Public schools	Albert Weatherbee.	1	1	3		
154	Georgetown	Georgetown College	Miss Bettie Stephan.	1	3	7		
155	Quaker City	Private instruction	J. H. Reid	1			20	18
156	Salem	Campbell School of Stenography, Salem Business College.	H. W. Campbell	1	5	16	3	2
157	Wadsworth	Western Reserve Normal College.	C. H. Kilgore	1	3	5		
158	Warren	Warren's School of Stenography and Typewriting.	E. L. King	1	4	8	5	5
	OREGON.							
159	Albany	Albany Collegiate Institute.	H. M. McKee	1	6	6		
	PENNSYLVANIA.							
160	Allegheny City	Public high school	W. N. Paulsen	1	35	15		
161	Altoona	Private instruction	W. G. Anderson	1	7		10	
162	Blairsville	St. Mary's Convent						
163	Boiling Springs	Private instruction	Rev. Albert Bell	1			6	1
164	Butler a	Private instruction	Jessie Richards	1			29	15
165	Dallas	do	E. M. Lewis	1			4	
166	Gettysburg	do	Noah E. Yeiser	1				
167	do	Pennsylvania College, private instruction.	Rev. Joel Swartz, D. D.	1	22			
168	Greencastle	Private instruction	Annie M. Goetz	1				
169	Kennett Square	Martin Academy	H. E. Painter	1	1	5		
170	Philadelphia	Studio and Pen Art Hall	J. H. Crabbe	1	10			
171	do	Philadelphia University of Shorthand.	Benjamin Stanley Banks.	4	40	35	46	26
172	do	Private instruction	J. Howard Jeffries	1			8	17
173	Frankford, Philadelphia	Young Men's Christian Association (Frankford branch).	W. H. Long	1			12	
174	Philadelphia	Young Men's Christian Association (South branch).	Thomas J. McLennon.	1			20	
175	do	Young Men's Christian Association (Pennsylvania R. R. department).	Reno Schock	1			36	

a Data in reference to instruction in Kittanning, Pa., are included.

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).

Total.	Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge f
6	Feb. 1, 1891	6	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)		44	Free
3	Jan. 19, 1891	1	Isaac Pitman's phonography, modified.	do	8 to 12 mos.	48	$75
9	Nov. 12, 1890	9	Scovil's shorthand	Caligraph (1)	21 weeks		Member sociat
4	Sept., 1890	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Smith (1)		32	$30
10	Sept 16, 1890	10	do	Remington (1)		40	$15 per t weeks
38	July 30 1890	38	do	Caligraph. Remington.	1 year	40	$10 for $40 for
26	Apr 1, 1891	21	Cross's shorthand	Caligraph (1). Smith (1).	6 months	52	$8 per m
8	do	8	do	Caligraph.	4 to 5 mos.	38	$30 for f
23	Jan. 22, 1891	22	do	Remington (1)	6 months	52	$45.
12	Sept. 1890	12	do	Smith	4 to 6 mos	44	$10.50 pe
50	do	50	Graham's phonography	None	2 years	40	Free
17	Nov. 1, 1890	17	Benn Pitman's phonography.				25 cents
	Sept., 1890		do				
7	Jan. 1, 1891	7	Isaac Pitman's phonography.				$5
44	Jan., 1891	44	do	Remington	5 months		$20
4	1890	4	Benn Pitman's phonography.				
2	Apr. 1, 1891	2	Munson's phonography.		40 weeks		$20
22	Nov., 1890	22	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		10 weeks.	40	$15 for 1
3	Jan., 1891		Munson's phonography.		30 weeks		$25
6	Sept., 1890	6	Graham's phonography	Hammond (3)	7 or 8 mos	36	$72
10	do	10	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington	3 months.		From $3 month
147	Sept 1, 1890	147	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography	Remington (10)	4 to 7 mos		Day, $ month ing, $ month
23	Dec., 1890	23	Isaac Pitman's phonography.				Free
12	Oct 1, 1890	12	Graham's phonography	Remington (2). Caligraph (1)	6 months	40	Member sociat
20	Nov., 1890	20	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1). Yost (1).	20 lessons		do
10	Oct., 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (1). Caligraph (2). Hammond (1).	7 months	24	do

a 25 weeks or 52 lessons

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into which shorthand

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	NEW HAMPSHIRE—continued.										
126	Epping	Hedding Academia	F. E. Rollins	1							10
	NEW JERSEY.										
127	Trenton	Public high school	Charles E. Roberts	1			25	25			50
	NEW MEXICO.										
128	Farmington	San Juan Industrial College.	P. C. Bryce	1							
129	Las Cruces	Visitation Academy		2							
130	Las Vegas	Las Vegas Seminary.	Mrs. Jennie Frey	1		6					6
	NEW YORK.										
131	Batavia	Private instruction	Mabel I. Brockway	1				1			1
132	Brooklyn	School of Our Lady of Mercy (St. Francis's College).	Rev. Bro. Bruno, O. S. F.	1	20						20
133	....do	St. John's School (St. Francis's College).	Rev. Bro. Anthony, O. S. F.	1	13						13
134	....do	St. Peter's Academy	Rev. Bro. Pascal	1	12						12
135	Ithaca	The Cascadilla School.	Wm. F. Speidel	1	8						8
136	Homer	Private instruction	Ida C. Lansing	1	1	5		2			8
137	Middle Village	Union Free School	James Cullen	1							39
138	Mount Vernon	Young Men's Christian Association.	Mrs. E. D. Costáles	1			11		1		12
139	Newburg	Mrs. E. E. Hall's Shorthand School.	Mrs. E. E. Hall	1		12	2	3	4		21
140	New York	The New York College of Phonography.	Wilbur M. Bates	3	5	4	3	9			21
141	....do	Central Evening High School.	Henry T. Brennan	1			*125				*125
142	....do	Headquarters Salvation Army.	Peter Glenn	1			11				11
143	Norwich	Norwich Academy and Union Free School.	Myrtle E. Moncrieff.	1	2	8		6		1	17
144	Plattsburg	Plattsburg High School.	F. J. Phillips	1	10	20	(18)				48
145	Rondout	St. Mary's School	Rev. Bro. Nicholas	1	6						6
146	Sing Sing	Palmer's School of Stenography, and Typewriting, Palmer's Collegiate and Business College.	Fred A. Hopper	1			10				10
147	Waverly	Waverly Business School and Institute of Shorthand and Typewriting.	Ella Sullivan	1	1	2					3
	NORTH CAROLINA.										
148	La Grange	Kinsey Female Seminary.	Miss M. F. Noell	1		12					12
	NORTH DAKOTA.										
149	Grand Forks	Northwestern Institute of Shorthand, Northwestern College of Commerce.	Miss Rose A. Gorman.	1	10	25	8	7			50

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continue

by an asterisk (*).

hand		Total.	Date of introduction of study	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charg
		22	Jan. 1 1891	22	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Hammond (3). Remington (1).	6 months.	52	$5 pe sho hig $7 p sho typ ing
		11	Nov 5, 1890	11	Wylie's shorthand	Remington	6 to 12 mos.	24	Meml asso
		7	Mar. 16, 1891	3	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	.....	39	$40...
		11	Mar. 4, 1891	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....do	4 to 8 mos.	36	$5....
		38	Oct. 1 1890	38*	Graham's phonography.	....	1 year.....	36	$150..
		10	Oct.. 1890	10	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	*1 year.....	.....	Free.
		6	.....	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2) .	.. ..	..	.....
		1	Dec 1, 1890	1	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) .	.....	.	.....
		74	Sept 1 1890	74	Graham's phonography.	Remington (4) Caligraph (1).	6 to 12 mos	52	$30 fo nrst
		12	Nov 10, 1890	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	....	13 weeks.....	....	Meml sec
		18	Feb , 1891	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)....	....	...	$15 p
		10	Nov. 10, 1890	10	McKee's shorthand.	Remington (1). Yost (1).	6 months	....	$25 p sho typ
		6	Oct 1, 1890	4	Moran's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	4 months	....	$25...
		6	Sept . 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost and Remington	6 months	38	$60 fo
		10	Aug 4 1890		Cross's shorthand and Pitman's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos	40	$20 p wee
		12	1890 .	22	Benn Pitman's phonography	Caligraph (2), Remington (1)	10 months	40	$60
		11	Feb 4 1891	11	do	Remington (1)	6 months	52	$5 pe
		*10	1890		Pitman's shorthand	Remington (1)	do	36	$5 pe
		5	Jan 6 1891	7	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	5 months .	25	$10 fo
3		63	.....		Cross's shorthand	Remington (2). Caligraph (1). Yost (1)	do	51	$40 fo $45
		45	1891	4	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography	.	20 days		.....
		25	Sept.. 1890	.	Isaac Pitman's phonography	Caligraph (2)	4 to 6 mos	5	$10
		13	Sept 16, 1890	3	Benn Pitman's phonography	Caligraph	6 to 8 mos	42	$50 p
		15	Feb. 2 1891	1	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography	Remington and Hammond (3)	4 to 6 mos	52	$5 fo
		4	Sept 1 1890	4	Munson's phonography	Caligraph (1). Remington (1)	4 to 6 mos	52	$4 fo

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into which

[Estimates

Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stud				
				Day.		Even-ing.		
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.
TEXAS—cont'd.								
Houston	Incarnate Word Academy.		4					
Marshall	Marshall Normal School.	H. T. Lyttleton	3					
San Marcos	Lone Star Business College.	C. W. Short	1	5	5	5		
UTAH.								
Logan City	Brigham Young College.	Francis Bannerman.	1	17	3	5	3	
Ogden	L. J. Rivers' School of Shorthand.	L. J. Rivers	1					
Salt Lake City	University of Deseret	John M. Whitaker	1	5	5			
VERMONT.								
Newbury	Newbury Seminary	Elmer E. French	1	9	1			
Rutland	Rutland English and Classical Institute and Business College.	Miss M. E. Hall	1	6	5	2	3	
VIRGINIA.								
Crozet	Miller Manual Labor School.	J. S. Barnwell	1	13				
Hollins	Hollins' Institute	Miss M. M. Williams.	1		4			
Marion	Marion Female College.	Estelle Peel-Izor	1		11	6		
Richmond	Richmond High School.	Miss Jean Gibson	1		46			
Saltville	Private instruction	H. B. Dunn	1	2				
Stuart	Stuart Normal College.	Miss Lucy D. Gilbert.	2	8	12			
Waynesboro	Waynesboro Business College.	J. W. Cook	2	12	13			
Winchester	Young Men's Christian Association.		1			20		
WASHINGTON.								
Chehalis	Chehalis Shorthand School.	Chas. P. Carrithers.	1					
Colfax	Colfax College	William English	1	8				
Spokane	Trinity Military Academy; private instruction.	J. Grier Long	1	9				
Tacoma	Puget Sound University.	Miss Faye E. Wheeler.	1					
WEST VIRGINIA								
Buckhannon	West Virginia Conference Seminary Business College.	Mrs. A. G. McIver.	2	7	1			
Salem	Salem Business College	C. L. Bond	1	5	1			
WISCONSIN.								
Beloit	Beloit College	J. G. Cross	1					
Delavan	Private instruction	do	1					
De Pere	do	Ella Mae Steele	1	1	1			

hand *was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891*—Continued

icated by an asterisk (*).

Total.	Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge
.....	Sept 1890		Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	.....	.....	.....
36	Sept.. 1890	36	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	3 to 10 mos.	36	$27 to sion
16	Mar. 1, 1891	15	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (2), Hammond (2).	6 mos	40	$8 per for s
28	Sept. 1, 1890	20	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	36 weeks..	...	.....
.....	Jan. 1, 1891	11	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	6 months .	52	$10 for $10 indi stru
10	Dec 1 1890	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	do	40	$17 for
16	Sept 1890	10	do	Hammond (2) .	1 year	36	$5.25, and ing, we
16	Jan 1 1891	16	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (2)	1 to 3 terms	36	$30 pe
13	Apr 14, 1891	13	Graham's phonography.	.. ..	....		.....
4	1890	4	The stenograph	Remington (2)	5 months		$30 .
16	Sept 1, 1890	16	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....	. .....	40	.
46	Feb. 15, 1891	46	Munson's phonography.	Yost.....	9 months.	38	Free
2	Jan. 16 1891	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)	..... .		$25 .
21	Sept 1890	20	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (2)	4 to 6 mos	52	$30 .
33	Sept. 1, 1890	25	do	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$35 .
20	Jan. 15, 1891	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	....	.....	..	Free
.....	1891	.	do .	Remington	6 months		$10 pe
8	1890		Pernin's shorthand	National (1) ...	6 months	36	$15 for
9	Mar.. 1891	9	Scovil's shorthand.	Remington (1), Crandall (1).	20 weeks	40	$40 for
16	Sept 1890	16	Cross's shorthand	Remington (2) ..	. to 6 mos	40	$36 pe
8	Mar 9 1891	8	Benn Pitman's phonography	Rapid (1)	5 to 6 mos	38	$1 per
6	Mar 9 1891	6	do	Remington (1)	6 months	39	$25 for
15	....	15	Cross's shorthand	....	10 lessons	...	$10 ..
8	Apr. 15, 1891	8	do . .	. ..	do	.	$10.
2	Jan 19 1891	2	Graham's phonography	Remington	6 months	50	90 cent

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into which

[Estimates a

Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of stude				
				Day.		Even-ing.		n
				Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.
WISCONSIN—con.								
Kenosha	Private instruction	S. C. Newman	1	....	....	6	....	...
Marinette	Northwestern College of Commerce.	Jas. R. Bryant	1	5	10	6	1	...
Merrill	Business College	W. L. Sill	1	4	3	....	....	
Waukesha	Waukesha College of Shorthand and Typewriting.	E. L. St. John	1	....	....	16	17	...
West Superior	Northwestern College of Commerce.	Thos. Thorkildsen	1	*15	*5	*7	*3	...

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Jan. 1, 1891	22	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Hammond (3), Remington (1).	6 months	52	$5 per month for shorthand, 3 nights per week; $7 per month for shorthand and typewriting, 3 nights per week.	176
Nov. 5, 1890	11	Wylie's shorthand	Remington	6 to 12 mos.	24	Membership in association.	177
Mar. 16, 1891	3	Graham's phonography.	Caligraph (1)		39	$40	178
Mar. 4, 1891	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	do	4 to 8 mos.	36	$5	179
Oct. 1, 1890	38	Graham's phonography.		1 year	36	$150	180
Oct., 1890	10	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	*1 year		Free	181
	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)				182
Dec. 1, 1890	1	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1)				183
Sept. 1, 1890	74	Graham's phonography.	Remington (4), Caligraph (1).	6 to 12 mos.	52	$30 for life scholarship.	184
Nov. 10, 1890	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.		13 weeks		Membership in association.	185
Feb., 1891	18	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Hammond (1)			$15 per month	186
Nov. 10, 1890	10	McKee's shorthand.	Remington (1), Yost (1).	6 months		$25 per quarter for shorthand and typewriting.	187
Oct. 1, 1890	4	Moran's phonography.	Caligraph (1)	4 months		$25	188
Sept., 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Yost and Remington.	6 months	38	$60 for course	188½
Aug. 4, 1890		Cross's shorthand and Pitman's phonography.	Remington	4 to 6 mos.	40	$20 per term of 40 weeks.	189
1890	22	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2), Remington (1).	10 months.	40	$60	190
Feb. 4, 1891	11	do	Remington (1)	6 months	52	$5 per month	191
1890		Pernin's shorthand.	Remington (1)	do	36	$3 per month	192
Jan. 6, 1891	5	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	None	5 months	25	$10 for course	193
		Cross's shorthand.	Remington (2), Caligraph (1), Yost (1).	do	51	$30 for 3 months; $45 for 5 months.	194
1891	40	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.		20 days		50 cents per day	195
Sept., 1890	25	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph (2)	3 to 5 mos	52	$40	196
Sept. 16, 1890	13	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Caligraph	6 to 8 mos	42	$10 per month	197
Feb. 2, 1891	15	Benn Pitman's and Graham's phonography.	Remington and Hammond (3).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$75 for scholarship.	198
Sept. 1, 1890	4	Munson's phonography.	Caligraph (1), Remington (1).	3 to 6 mos.	52	$45 for the course.	199

Table of institutions and classes in the United States into which shorthand

[Estimates are indicated

	Location.	Institution with which connected.	Principal teacher.	Number of teachers.	Number of students. Day. Male.	Day. Female.	Evening. Male.	Evening. Female.	By mail. Male.	By mail. Female.	Total.
	TEXAS—cont'd.										
200	Houston	Incarnate Word Academy.		4							
201	Marshall	Marshall Normal School.	H. T. Lyttleton	3							36
202	San Marcos	Lone Star Business College.	C. W. Short	1	5	5	5		1		16
	UTAH.										
203	Logan City	Brigham Young College.	Francis Bannerman.	1	17	3	5	3			28
204	Ogden	L. J. Rivers' School of Shorthand.	L. J. Rivers	1							
205	Salt Lake City	University of Deseret	John M. Whitaker	1	5	5					10
	VERMONT.										
206	Newbury	Newbury Seminary	Elmer E. French	1	9	1					10
207	Rutland	Rutland English and Classical Institute and Business College.	Miss M. E. Hall	1	6	5	2	3			16
	VIRGINIA.										
208	Crozet	Miller Manual Labor School.	J. S. Barnwell	1	13						13
209	Hollins	Hollins' Institute	Miss M. M. Williams.	1		4					4
210	Marion	Marion Female College.	Estelle Peel-Izor	1		11	6				16
211	Richmond	Richmond High School.	Miss Jean Gibson	1		46					46
212	Saltville	Private instruction	H. B. Dunn	1	2						2
213	Stuart	Stuart Normal College.	Miss Lucy D. Gilbert.	2	8	12				1	21
214	Waynesboro	Waynesboro Business College.	J. W. Cook	2	12	13			6	2	33
215	Winchester	Young Men's Christian Association.		1			20				20
	WASHINGTON.										
216	Chehalis	Chehalis Shorthand School.	Chas. P. Carrithers.	1							
217	Colfax	Colfax College	William English	1	8						8
218	Spokane	Trinity Military Academy; private instruction.	J. Grier Long	1	9						9
219	Tacoma	Puget Sound University.	Miss Faye E. Wheeler.	1							16
	WEST VIRGINIA.										
220	Buckhannon	West Virginia Conference Seminary Business College.	Mrs. A. G. McIver.	2	7	1					8
221	Salem	Salem Business College.	C. L. Bond	1	5	1					6
	WISCONSIN.										
222	Beloit	Beloit College	J. G. Cross	1							15
223	Delavan	Private instruction	do	1							8
224	De Pere	do	Ella Mae Steele	1	1	1					2

was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Sept., 1890	.....	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	.....	....	.....	200
Sept., 1890	36	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington and Caligraph.	3 to 10 mos.	36	$27 to $36 per session.	201
Mar. 1, 1891	15	Scott-Browne's phonography.	Remington (2), Hammond (2).	6 mos	40	$8 per month; $25 for scholarship.	202
Sept. 1, 1890	20	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	.....	36 weeks..	....	.....	203
Jan. 1, 1891	11	Graham's phonography.	Remington (2) ...	6 months .	52	$10 for 6 months, $10 for 1 month individual instruction.	204
Dec. 1, 1890	12	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington	...do	40	$17 for course.....	205
Sept., 1890	10	....do	Hammond (5)	1 year	36	$5.25, shorthand and typewriting, term of 12 weeks.	206
Jan. 1, 1891	16	Benn Pitman's phonography	Remington (2) ...	1 to 3 terms	36	$30 per term.....	207
Apr. 14, 1891	13	Graham's phonography.	.....	.....	....	.....	208
1890	4	The stenograph ..	Remington (2) ...	5 months..	....	$30.....	209
Sept. 1, 1890	16	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	40	.....	210
Feb. 15, 1891	46	Munson's phonography.	Yost.....	9 months..	38	Free	211
Jan. 16, 1891	2	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Remington (1) ...	.....	....	$25.....	212
Sept., 1890	20	Pernin's shorthand.	Caligraph (2)	4 to 6 mos.	52	$30.....	213
Sept. 1, 1890	25	....do	Remington (3), Caligraph (1).	4 to 6 mos.	52	$35.....	214
Jan. 15, 1891	20	Benn Pitman's phonography.	.....	.....	....	Free	215
1891	.....	....do	Remington	6 months	....	$10 per month	216
1890	.....	Pernin's shorthand.	National (1)	6 months .	36	$15 for 3 months ..	217
Mar., 1891	9	Scovil's shorthand.	Remington (1), Crandall (1).	20 weeks..	40	$40 for course.....	218
Sept., 1890	16	Cross's shorthand	Remington (2) ...	3 to 6 mos.	40	$36 per term	219
Mar. 9, 1891	8	Benn Pitman's phonography.	Rapid (1)	5 to 6 mos.	38	$1 per week.....	220
Mar. 9, 1891	6	....do	Remington (1)...	6 months .	39	$25 for course.....	221
.....	15	Cross's shorthand.	.....	10 lessons.	....	$10.....	222
Apr. 15, 1891	8	....do	.....	....do	....	$10.....	223
Jan. 19, 1891	2	Graham's phonography.	Remington	6 months .	50	30 cents per lesson.	224

rthand reporters were engaged by parties to report cases
rts as early as 1856. The law of 1861 was amended from
so as to include other district courts and also county cou
2 an act was passed requiring an examination of all person
ointment and providing that the reporter should be exami
mittee of three members of the bar and should write 150
ute for five consecutive minutes on matter not previousl
, and immediately read the same and transcribe his n
ble longhand. Reporters are appointed in all courts o
h courts consist of the supreme, the superior, and certa
rts; they hold their office during the pleasure of the judges
them, and are paid at the rate of $10 a day for reportin
s per hundred words for transcript. In civil cases the p
ing pays the reporter's per diem, and it is taxed as costs of
e collected from the losing party. The party ordering a t
urse pays for it, but in case the judge orders one he can d
between the respective parties or compel either side to pa
fit. In criminal cases the per diem and the cost of tran
always paid by the county in which the case is tried. In ad
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was introduced during the scholastic year ended June 30, 1891—Continued.

by an asterisk (*).]

Date of introduction of study.	Number of pupils since introduction.	System taught.	Typewriters used.	Time required for completion of course.	Number of weeks in scholastic year.	Charge for tuition.	
Oct. 15, 1890	6	Benn Pitman's phonography.	None			50 cents per hour for class instruction.	225
July 1, 1890	22	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 months	52	$60	226
Sept. 1, 1890	7	Isaac Pitman's phonography.	Remington (2)	4 months	32	$50	227
Nov. 25, 1890	33	Graham's phonography.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	6 months	52	$8 per month	228
Nov. 1, 1890	*30	Cross's shorthand.	Remington (1), Caligraph (1).	4 months	17	$25 for 3 months	229

EMPLOYMENT OF STENOGRAPHERS IN COURTS.

On April 16, 1860, the legislature of the State of New York authorized the employment of stenographers in the courts of the first judicial district. This was the earliest law having reference to court reporters. An amendment in 1863 made the stenographers sworn officers of the courts. Maryland, on March 7, 1863, empowered the judge of the superior court of Baltimore to appoint a shorthand writer, and three years later two stenographers were authorized by the State of Pennsylvania for the district court of Philadelphia. Illinois, Kansas, Maine, and Wisconsin enacted laws providing for the employment of stenographers in certain courts in 1867, New Jersey in 1868, and Michigan and Vermont in 1869. In the following year official stenographers were introduced in Massachusetts and West Virginia, while the judges of certain courts in Kentucky and Iowa were privileged to appoint such officers in 1872. Laws providing for stenographic court reporting were passed during the next ten years by New Hampshire, Colorado, Indiana, Dakota, Nebraska, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Ohio, Connecticut, Alabama, California, Arizona, Nevada, Rhode Island, Montana, and Wyoming. Illinois decided through its supreme court that the law of that State was unconstitutional, and the employment of official reporters was abolished in 1872; and no laws are known to be in effect in the District of Columbia, Indian Territory, Virginia, and Washington.

More detailed information of the action of the States and Territories in reference to official shorthand reporters will be found in the appended summaries. Many of the facts mentioned have been kindly furnished by official reporters in the several Commonwealths.

ALABAMA.—By the law of February 12, 1879, Alabama authorized the judges presiding in the circuit and chancery courts of the State, held in the city of Mobile, and also the judge of the city court, in the city of Mobile, to appoint a competent shorthand reporter to hold office during the pleasure of the judge, who must, at the request of either party or of the court in a civil action or proceeding, take down in shorthand all testimony, the objections made, rulings of the court, the exceptions taken, and the oral instructions given, and, if directed by the court or requested by either counsel, write out the same in plain, legible longhand, and verify and file the same with the clerk of the court in which the case was tried. The law further provided that the report of the official stenographer should be prima facie a correct statement of all testimony and proceedings in court. A compensation of $10 per day for taking notes was also provided for, with 15 cents per folio of 100 words for the first copy and 7½ cents per 100 words for each duplicate. No person could be appointed without being duly examined by a committee, writing in shorthand at the rate of at least 140 words per minute for five consecutive minutes upon matter not previously written by him, and transcribing the same into longhand with accuracy. The

official reporter must attend to the duties of his office in person except when excused for good and sufficient reason by order of the court. Employment in his professional capacity elsewhere was not to be deemed a good and sufficient reason for excuse.

On the 23d of February, 1883, the legislature passed an act for the appointment of an official stenographer for the city courts of Montgomery and Dallas and for the courts held in said counties. This law provided that the reporter should not be required in any civil case to transcribe his notes until compensation should be tendered him or deposited in court for that purpose. In taking down testimony out of court it should be the duty of the reporter to take down as they occurred all remarks made by the counsel, parties, or other persons during the examination which related to the testimony, or manner, or appearance, or conduct of witnesses, or to the cause in which the discussion was taken, and any other remarks made in the hearing of the witnesses which either party wished taken down.

ARIZONA passed laws in 1879 providing that the district judge of each judicial district may appoint a competent shorthand reporter, to hold office during the pleasure of the judge, to report all criminal cases coming before the district courts, and for the payment of a salary of $1,000 per annum. For the reporting of civil cases he should receive $10 per day for each day employed and 15 cents a folio for transcript. In any civil case in which his services are required the reporter may, before performing work required of him, demand that an amount equal to his fees be deposited in the court for the payment thereof.

ARKANSAS.—By the law of 1871 Arkansas provided for the appointment of stenographers by the judges of circuit courts when the same would in their opinion conduce to a more speedy and economical administration of justice. In 1873 a law was enacted which provided that no court or judge should have power to appoint a stenographer whose salary, cost, expenses, or per diem, or any part thereof, should be paid by the State or any county or taxed as costs against any party in any proceeding, either civil or criminal; and as a result of this provision there is at the present time but one official reporter in the State, he being employed in the United States court for the western district of Arkansas at Fort Smith. His appointment was made by the judge through authority from the Attorney-General and a yearly salary is paid him. His duty is to report all murder cases tried in that court, and on account of the large number of murders committed in the Indian Territory over which the court mentioned has jurisdiction, he and an assistant are almost constantly employed in reporting that branch of cases alone.

CALIFORNIA.—The first law of California providing for the appointment of court reporters was enacted on May 17, 1861. This law provided for the appointment of official reporters by the judges of three district courts, and that their compensation should not exceed $15 a day.

Shorthand reporters were engaged by parties to report cases in their courts as early as 1856. The law of 1861 was amended from time to time so as to include other district courts and also county courts. In 1872 an act was passed requiring an examination of all persons before appointment and providing that the reporter should be examined by a committee of three members of the bar and should write 150 words a minute for five consecutive minutes on matter not previously seen by him, and immediately read the same and transcribe his notes into legible longhand. Reporters are appointed in all courts of record. Such courts consist of the supreme, the superior, and certain police courts; they hold their office during the pleasure of the judges appointing them, and are paid at the rate of $10 a day for reporting and 20 cents per hundred words for transcript. In civil cases the party prevailing pays the reporter's per diem, and it is taxed as costs of the case, to be collected from the losing party. The party ordering a transcript of course pays for it, but in case the judge orders one he can divide the cost between the respective parties or compel either side to pay it, as he sees fit. In criminal cases the per diem and the cost of transcription are always paid by the county in which the case is tried. In addition to the courts of record, in all preliminary examinations on charges of felony, at the request of the prosecution or defense, the justice must appoint a reporter to take down the testimony, and in case the defendant is held to answer to the charge of felony, the evidence so taken must be transcribed and filed with the county clerk. The county also pays for this, on order of the committing magistrate. The reporter of the supreme court is appointed by that court, holds office at their pleasure, and reports all oral arguments and decisions and receives a salary of $3,000 per year. The act authorizing his appointment went into effect January 1, 1873. There is a superior court for each county, having from one to twelve departments, according to population, with a judge for each department, and each judge may appoint a reporter. These superior courts have jurisdiction of all criminal cases except misdemeanors, and of all civil cases involving title to real estate or an amount of $300 and upwards. Until 1862 the per diem paid reporters was $15, no provision being made for payment for transcript; but since that time the per diem and fees for transcript have remained as at present. The law of California in reference to shorthand reporters may be obtained by consulting the case of *ex parte Reis.* (64 Cal. Reports, 233.)

COLORADO.—The provisions of the law of 1874 in reference to the appointment and employment of stenographic reporters in the district courts of the Territory of Colorado stand upon the statute book of the State to-day in the same language. They are that the judge of each judicial district may appoint a competent shorthand reporter to attend during any term of the court or any part thereof or during the trial of any cause or causes, who shall on the direction of the court take down in shorthand all the testimony, the rulings, the exceptions taken,

and oral instructions given and other proceedings had during the trial of any causes, and in such causes as the court may designate, and in such reasonable time after the trial as the court may appoint, shall write out the same in plain, legible longhand writing and file it, together with the original shorthand writing, with the clerk of the court in which the cause was tried. Such reporter shall receive for his services such pay as the judge of the court may direct to be paid from the treasury of the county wherein the court sits, not exceeding $10 per diem for reducing the testimony to shorthand and not exceeding 20 cents per folio of 100 words for making transcripts in longhand when so directed by the court. The per diem allowance shall be paid to the reporter by the county in which the suit may be pending and the allowance for transcript shall be paid as other costs of the suit.

There are now thirteen judicial districts in the State, of which the most populous is the second, which embraces Arapahoe County. In this district there are five judges of the district court, each of whom appoints a stenographer, while the other districts have one judge each. The maximum per diem is allowed stenographers, and the rate for transcribing is fixed at 15 cents per folio in this district; but in the other districts the full amount both for per diem and transcripts is obtained.

In 1883 the general assembly passed a law authorizing the employment of stenographic reporters in the county courts of the State, which provides that the judge of any county court may, when in the opinion of the board of county commissioners of such county it shall be expedient or necessary, appoint a competent shorthand reporter whose duties shall be such as are now or may hereafter be provided by law for reporters employed in the district courts. Such reporter shall receive for his service such pay as the board of county commissioners may fix, to be paid from the treasury of the county, not exceeding $10 per diem and 15 cents per folio for transcripts. The county court of Arapahoe County is the only one in the State employing a stenographer under this act.

In 1883 the legislature established criminal courts in the counties of Arapahoe, Pueblo, and Lake, and the appointment of stenographers was authorized for those courts on the same basis as for the district courts. In 1887 the criminal court for Arapahoe County was abolished, and in 1891 those for Pueblo and Lake met with the same fate. Superior courts were also established in 1883 for cities having over 25,000 inhabitants. The only superior court organized was in the city of Denver, but it was short-lived, a subsequent legislature repealing the act.

In 1885 the judges of the supreme court were authorized to employ such clerical and stenographic assistants in connection with their official duties as might in their judgment be deemed necessary, such persons to be removed at the pleasure of the justices. An annual appropriation of $2,500 was provided by section 2 of the law, and it is stated that the three justices now employ amanuenses at about $80 per month

each for about ten months in the year, to whom they dictate their rulings, etc.

In 1889 a supreme court commission was established for the purpose of expediting the work of the supreme court, and an appropriation of $1,000 annually was made for clerical and stenographic assistance. This commission was abolished in 1891 and a court of appeals was appointed in its stead, with like provisions for stenographic help.

It will be noted that Colorado provides for the employment of stenographers in all its courts of record.

CONNECTICUT.—A law authorizing the judges of the superior court to employ a stenographer to take the evidence and other proceedings in criminal cases was enacted by the State of Connecticut in 1878, but not being mandatory in all criminal cases, but optional, a stenographer was rarely employed, except in murder trials. In 1884 a law was passed providing that the judges of the superior court, at their meeting in June biennially, should appoint one skillful stenographer for each county, to be the official stenographer in and for the county for which he is appointed for the term of two years succeeding the 1st day of July succeeding his appointment, and until his successor is appointed and qualified, unless sooner removed by said judges for cause. He shall be sworn and shall then be an officer of the court, and it shall be his duty to attend the terms and sessions of the superior court for which he is appointed and make accurate shorthand reports of all the proceedings in said court, except the arguments of counsel. An exemplified copy shall constitute a part of the official record of the case. He shall furnish a copy of his notes when requested within a reasonable time, and shall be paid for his services by the State the sum of $10 per day for attendance and 10 cents a folio for each copy of transcript, which, if ordered by the court, will be paid by the State; otherwise by the party requesting it. A stenographer may be employed in hearings before the probate courts, but his compensation must be paid by the party employing him.

DELAWARE has only recently provided for official reporters in certain of its courts and no appointments have yet been made. The salary is $1,500 per annum, and the Wilmington News has quite recently expressed the opinion that it will be difficult to secure a properly qualified stenographer at the compensation mentioned.

FLORIDA.—The only provision made for court reporting is an act authorizing the judges to appoint a stenographer when they may deem it necessary so to do at a compensation of $10 per day, with an allowance for mileage. Stenographers are sometimes so appointed on the application of counsel in the case at issue.

GEORGIA.—On February 25, 1876, an act was passed allowing a stenographer to each superior court circuit in the State. At present there are twenty-two circuits and the stenographers are appointed by and hold office at the pleasure of the judges. In criminal cases the com-

court the reporter shall take full stenographic notes of the evidence and oral proceedings in all cases where his services are requested either by the court or by any party to the action. The compensation of the stenographer remains the same as under the law of 1879, but it was further provided that a stenographer's fee of $2 should be taxed by the clerk of the court as costs in each case in the district court in any county in which a stenographer should be appointed, which, when collected, should be paid into the county treasury.

KENTUCKY authorized stenographers in the courts of several counties by a law approved March 1, 1872. Under this law official reporters were made *ex officio* examiners, were allowed a common seal, and were given full power and authority to swear witnesses and take certified depositions in any of the courts of the State, receiving for the same the fee granted by law to examiners. Before entering upon their duties they were required to give bond in the sum of $5,000. The fees were not fixed by law, but the stenographers were permitted to charge standard rates.

Three additional reporters were appointed under the amendment to the law, which was passed in March, 1878. This amendment established $5 as the per diem compensation for attendance, with 20 cents per hundred words for transcript. Both these laws applied only to the courts of Jefferson County. In the same year stenographers were provided for other courts of the Commonwealth. Stenographers were provided for additional county courts in 1882.

LOUISIANA.—In 1876 the judge of each district court for the parish of New Orleans, wherein appealable cases are tried, was permitted to appoint a competent shorthand writer, capable of reporting at the rate of 150 words per minute, who should be sworn as an expert and officer of the court, and should give bond in the sum of $1,000 for the faithful performance of his duties. The judge of any district court outside of the parish mentioned was allowed in his discretion in any particular case to appoint a shorthand reporter to take the testimony upon application of all parties to the suit or their counsel. Transcripts were to be furnished within ten days of the taking of the same and the reporter was entitled to charge not more than 35 cents for each folio of 100 words of testimony. The constitution of 1879 abolished all fees and the legislature placed the stenographers in the city of New Orleans on a salary of $1,800 per annum, with no compensation for transcribing. In 1884 a law was passed providing that when no one would accept the position of reporter in the civil district court of the parish of New Orleans it should be the duty of the minute clerks to make the note of evidence, etc. A bill was introduced by Mr. Dupre into the last legislature which was intended to replace the act of 1879. This was amended in the senate and is reported to be impracticable in many respects. The condition of the courts with reference to the employment of stenographers is regarded as unsatisfactory.

could employ a shorthand reporter to take notes of the testimony therein. In 1877 the law was amended so as to include the counties of Vanderburg, Vigo, Allen, Tippecanoe, and Wayne. In 1881 all counties were placed on an equality. The present laws provide that for the purpose of facilitating and expediting the trial of causes the judge or judges, or a majority of them, of the circuit, criminal, and superior courts of each and every county may appoint one or more shorthand reporters to take down in shorthand the evidence and to note proceedings in the trial of causes pending in such courts whenever in the opinion of the judge presiding at the trial of the cause the evidence ought to be so taken down and the proceedings so noted, or when the parties to a cause agree that the same shall be done. No person shall be ineligible to such office on account of sex. Before proceeding to exercise his office such reporter shall take an oath before some person qualified to administer oaths faithfully to perform his duties. It shall be his duty to be promptly present whenever he shall be required by any judge of such court or courts of his county and to take down accordingly in shorthand the oral evidence delivered in the cause, including both questions and answers, and to note the rulings of the judge in respect to the admission and rejection of evidence and the objections and exceptions thereto. Whenever in any case such reporter shall be requested by either party to furnish to such party a transcript of the evidence, or any part thereof, it shall be his duty to furnish the same written in plain, legible longhand, as soon after being requested as practicable; provided, that the reporter may require payment for such transcript, or the same satisfactorily secured to him, before he proceeds to do the work required of him. Whenever in any case such verbatim report shall be made by the official reporter the original longhand manuscript of the evidence by him made may be filed with the clerk of the court by the party entitled to the use of the same, and in case of an appeal to the supreme court or superior court in general term it shall be the duty of the clerk, if requested to do so by said party, to certify the original manuscript of evidence, when the same shall be incorporated in a bill of exceptions to the supreme court or other court of appeal instead of the transcript thereof, and the said original manuscript of evidence may be used in the supreme court or other court of appeal in the same manner and for all purposes in and for which a certified transcript thereof might heretofore be used; and in such cases the clerk of the court shall be entitled to any fees for that part of the transcript of record containing the evidence. The reporters hold office during the pleasure of the judges and their compensation is fixed at not more than $5 per day, they being also allowed to charge 10 cents per folio for transcripts.

IOWA.—The first law passed in Iowa regarding the employment of stenographers in court was enacted by the fourteenth general assembly and approved on April 23, 1872. It authorized the judges of the dis-

exceeding $1,500 per annum. In 1867 this law was superseded by a more comprehensive enactment by which the employment of stenographers was authorized in the superior, common pleas, and orphans' courts of Baltimore. These reporters could appoint assistants at their own expense and would hold office during good behavior. The stenographers of the superior and common pleas courts might be required to prepare for publication volumes of reports of selected opinions, particularly those regarding questions of interest to other courts of the State. Such volumes as should be published at the expense of the stenographers could be copyrighted.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The judges of the superior court of Suffolk County (Boston) were authorized in 1870 to appoint two stenographic reporters, who should make reports of such cases as the judge might direct or where the parties agreed in writing that they should be reported. Stenographers are employed regularly by the State only in the superior court, civil sessions. Some three years ago a general State law authorized the appointment of a reporter for the superior court in each county, at $9 per diem for note taking while the civil court was in session, and 10 cents per folio of 100 words for each copy of transcript made. These appointments are made by the justices of the superior courts at their quarterly meetings in Boston. These appointments are made without examination. There have been some recent amendments to the law, increasing slightly the per diem compensation in counties other than Suffolk and adding $500 per year to the salaries of the four reporters in Suffolk County, as their work is steadily increasing in volume. The need of stenographic services is felt in the local Federal courts and most of the hearings before the board of railroad commissioners and board of arbitration and conciliation and the legislative committees are taken in shorthand. Trials of capital cases are reported by order of the attorney-general, and city government debates are taken in full and published in a daily newspaper. The school committee is also reported quite fully, although not *in extenso*.

MICHIGAN introduced the employment of stenographers in the courts in 1869, and next to New York has been regarded as most fully providing for the preservation of court proceedings by shorthand. In the year mentioned a stenographer was provided for in the circuit court of Wayne County (at Detroit), who should be appointed by the governor upon the certificate of the judge that the volume of business made it desirable. The appointee was made a court officer, and was to hold office during the pleasure of the governor. The stenographer's duty was to take full stenographic notes of the testimony and all other proceedings in the trial of every case, and, when desired by the judge or counsel for either party, to make a legible transcript of his notes, to be filed by the clerk and preserved as part of the files in the cause, subject to the inspection and use of both parties. A compensation of $2,000

transcript is ordered by either of the parties litigant or by the court, but it gives him the power to retain such transcript until his fees for the same have been paid; it also provides for the certification of transcripts by reporters after their official terms of four years have expired. Iowa is divided into eighteen judicial districts and each of the forty-four judges has appointed a court reporter, of whom two are women.

In 1886 the general assembly gave the judges of the superior courts, of which there are four, the right to employ stenographers, who are to be governed by and subject to the same laws as the reporters of the district courts (the circuit courts having been abolished), with the exception that their per diem compensation is fixed at $5 for actual time employed.

KANSAS.—Stenographers were authorized for the district and the criminal courts of Leavenworth County by a law of February, 1867. Three years later this law was repealed and another passed, providing for the services of a stenographer, when necessary, in the criminal court of Leavenworth County and regularly in the district court of the first judicial district, including Leavenworth.

Kansas is divided into thirty-five judicial districts, each presided over by a district court. There are also three circuit courts created by special enactments of the legislature for the relief of the district courts, and governed by the laws applicable to the district courts, and which therefore have official reporters. Thus provision is made by law for official stenographers in thirty-eight courts. By legislative appropriation each of the judges and commissioners of the supreme court is allowed a certain sum annually for the hire of a stenographer or an amanuensis. The law of March 13, 1879, provides that the judges of the district courts are authorized to appoint stenographers, who are to be sworn officers of the court and hold office during the pleasure of the judges appointing them. The reporter's duty is to attend upon each term of court and report all actions where directed by the judge or any of the parties. Stenographers so appointed are to receive $6 per day, which amount shall be taxed by the clerk as other costs in the case; and they may also receive 10 cents per folio for any transcript furnished, to be paid by the party ordering the same. In all criminal cases where the services of a stenographer shall be required by the court the compensation shall be the same as in civil cases and paid as other costs in criminal cases.

This law was superseded in 1884 by another, which provided that no person should be appointed as official reporter of any court in the State without having written at the rate of at least 150 words per minute for five consecutive minutes upon matter not previously written by or known to him, in the presence of a committee of at least three members of the bar practicing in such court, appointed by the judge to make the examination. Before entering upon his duties he shall take and subscribe the official oath. Under the direction of the judge of the

of all parties interested." This law was amended in 1877 and it was then provided that reporters should not be appointed in any county whose board of county commissioners had not first authorized such appointment. Compensation was fixed at not exceeding $10 per day for note taking, and 15 cents per 100 words for transcript.

MISSISSIPPI.—The first law in reference to the employment of stenographers in courts in Mississippi was passed in 1886. The present laws will be found in Acts of Mississippi, 1886, pages 138 and 158; 1889, page 79; 1890, pages 96-104 and 254.

MISSOURI.—In 1881 a law was passed giving judges of criminal courts in cities of over 100,000 inhabitants authority to appoint a stenographer at a salary of $1,800 per annum, who was required to report the testimony in all cases in full and to furnish transcripts, when ordered by either side, free of charge. Whenever said reporter is required to take notes before the grand jury he is sworn to secrecy. In case of temporary absence for any cause, the judge is authorized to appoint a competent shorthand writer in his place for the time being. In case of conviction of misdemeanor said shorthand reporter may be subject to a fine not to exceed $500, or may be imprisoned in the city jail not to exceed a period of one year. The terms of the act of 1883 limit its operations to counties having more than 45,000 and less than 150,000 inhabitants, and cover the cities of St. Joseph and Carthage, in the counties of Buchanan and Jasper, respectively. This act provides for the appointment of a shorthand writer by the judges of the circuit courts. He must have had at least three years' experience in court reporting and is required to take full notes of all cases tried under the directions of the judge and to preserve the same. His compensation is fixed at $10 per day and 15 cents per folio for transcript. The judge may, at his discretion, order a part or the whole of the evidence and proceedings of a case written out for his own benefit, and the cost of the same is taxed in the same manner as the other costs in the case. The per diem compensation is made up of a fee of $3 taxed by the clerk of the court in every case filed, except suits for the collection of delinquent taxes, which amount is paid over to the county treasurer to apply to the salary of the stenographer. The stenographer is allowed one or more deputies when necessary. The five divisions of the circuit court of the city of St. Louis were exempt from the provisions of the foregoing acts. They were provided for by the law of 1887, which authorized a majority of the judges sitting together in general term to appoint a stenographer for each division or special term of said court, to be duly sworn and also bonded with two sureties in the sum of $3,000. The salary is fixed at $1,800 per year, with 15 cents a folio for transcripts. In this case also the judge is authorized to order transcript of proceedings for his own use, the cost of which is to be taxed as other costs in the case, and a tax of $3 is created, to be applied to the salary of the stenographer, for each case filed with the clerk of the court. The

MAINE.—Stenographers were first employed officially in the courts of Maine in 1867 under a statute enacted that year, which provides that at any term of the supreme judicial court the presiding justice may appoint a stenographer, whose duty shall be to take full notes of all oral testimony and other proceedings in the trial of causes, including the charge of the judge, and furnish for the use of the court a transcript of so much thereof as the court may direct, for which he shall receive from the county in which the court is holden a sum not exceeding $5 per day for attendance, 6 cents per mile for actual travel, and 10 cents per hundred words for transcripts. He shall also furnish a transcript of the evidence and other proceedings taken by him as either party to a trial may request on payment by the party of the sum specified for transcripts. This statute was made applicable to the superior courts of the counties of Cumberland, Kennebec, and Aroostook upon their establishment in 1868, 1878, and 1885, respectively. The appointed stenographer is an officer of the court, and must be sworn to a faithful discharge of his duty.

In 1885 a statute was enacted authorizing the governor and council to appoint, upon the written recommendation of any judge of the supreme judicial court, competent stenographers as commissioners to take depositions and disclosures of trustees. The legislature of 1889 fixed the salary of the stenographer of the superior court of the county of Cumberland at $1,500 per annum, and the legislature of 1891 authorized the appointment of a stenographer to the chief justice at the same salary, payable from the State treasury. Under the law enacted in 1891 the judge of any court of probate or insolvency may appoint a stenographer to report contested matters in such court, who shall take full notes of all oral testimony and such other proceedings as directed, and when required by the judge shall furnish for the files of the court transcripts, transcribing his notes "in full by questions and answers," and receiving the same compensation as in the higher courts, to be paid by the county, the county to reimburse itself from the estates in litigation and on account of which the services have been rendered.

The amount legally chargeable for writing out reports of cases carried to the law court and actually paid for by either party whose duty it is to furnish them may be taxed in the bill of costs and allowed against the losing party.

A certified copy of the testimony taken by the official stenographer of any witness at the trial of a former case is evidence to prove the same at any subsequent trial. It has been the custom in this State to write out the testimony in narrative form, omitting all immaterial and repeated matter.

MARYLAND.—The judge of the superior court of Baltimore City was empowered by a law passed on March 7, 1864, to employ a stenographer to report the testimony in trials, to hold office during the pleasure of the court, and to receive a compensation to be fixed by the judge, not

be paid out of the county treasury and in civil cases by the party requesting the same, the amount allowed the reporter being taxed as part of the costs. This law was amended in 1877, the stenographer was made a sworn officer of the court, and a tax of $3 was required to be paid to the clerk of the court by each party to the suit in every civil action, which amount was to be applied to the salary of the stenographer, and the prevailing party to have the sum so paid taxed in his bill of costs. A salary of $1,200 per year was provided. At an extra session of the legislature the act was again amended and the salary increased to $1,500 per annum, with 5 cents per folio for transcripts in civil cases The sixteenth session of the legislative assembly, in 1889, increased the salary of all official stenographers to $1,800 per annum.

There are at present ten judicial districts in the State, two of which have two official stenographers each, so that there are in all twelve official court reporters in Montana.

NEBRASKA.—By the law of February 9, 1875, stenographic reporters were authorized in the district courts, and were appointed by the judge whenever the parties to a suit requested it. A transcript fee of 10 cents per hundred words was provided. On March 1, 1879, the salary was made $1,500 and the transcript fee reduced to 5 cents per folio. A law was passed in 1887 authorizing the employment of stenographers in the supreme court, for each of whom a salary of $1,200 a year was appropriated and a like sum for a shorthand clerk to the attorney-general. The stenographers in the district courts are required to make stenographic reports of all oral proceedings had therein, including the questions and testimony of witnesses, and such other proceedings as the presiding judge may direct, except the argument to the jury. Parties to suit may, with the consent of the judge, waive the reporting of any part of the proceedings required to be recorded. Whenever during the progress of any cause any question shall arise as to the admissibility or the rejection of any evidence or other matter causing an argument to the court, the reporter shall briefly note the ground of the objection made, the ruling of the court thereon, and any exception taken by either party; he shall keep and maintain an office within the district for which he shall be appointed and shall preserve all stenographic reports made by him as official reporter, which he shall turn over to his successor upon the expiration of his term of office as the property of the State; he shall furnish on application of any party to a suit a longhand copy of the proceedings or any part thereof, for which he shall be entitled to a fee of 5 cents per hundred words, to be paid by the party requesting the same, except where such copy is ordered by the State's attorney, provided that where, after conviction, the defendant shall make affidavit that he is unable by reason of his poverty to pay for such copy the judge may direct the reporter to make such copy without fee. The reporters may appoint deputies, who shall have the same qualifications, act in their stead, and be paid by them. The practice

per annum was also provided for, and the parties for every issue of fact tried before the court or a jury were required to pay $3 to the clerk to apply to the stenographer's salary. In 1873 the superior and recorder's courts of Detroit were provided with stenographers, and in 1887 they were authorized for the circuit court of the county of Kent and the superior court of Grand Rapids; in 1879, for the police court of Grand Rapids, and in 1881, for the circuit court of Saginaw County. In no State in the Union are the proceedings of the courts more regularly reported. There are more than thirty judicial circuits in the State, and each has an official reporter, the salary in the more important circuits being $2,000 per year, with a fee of from 8 to 10 cents per 100 words for transcript. The stenographers are appointed by the governor on the recommendation of the judge and hold office during good behavior, and the fact that they are only removed for cause is believed to have added greatly to their efficiency. The compensation in the less important circuits varies somewhat, being fixed by special acts in each case. The certified copy of an official reporter's notes is prima facie evidence of the testimony of a witness, and may be read as a substitute for the original testimony in the event of death, absence, or inefficiency of the witness on a second trial, and repeated decisions of the supreme court of the State have recognized the utility, accuracy, and status of these reports.

MINNESOTA.—A special act of the legislature of 1873 authorized the appointment of an official court reporter for Ramsey County (St. Paul), and in the following year a general law was enacted providing for stenographers in the principal judicial districts of the State. In 1881 a stenographer was authorized for Hennepin County (Minneapolis). The law of 1874 specified the duties of the stenographic reporter to be "to make in shorthand writing a true record or report of the proceedings and evidence taken upon the trials of issues of fact in the several courts held in his district, and, when required by the court or either of the parties to any such trial, to transcribe such record or report into the words which shall be represented by the characters used by him in reporting such proceedings and evidence as the same shall occur." Before such reporter shall enter upon the performance of his duties he shall take and subscribe an oath. "In reporting or recording the evidence of witnesses sworn and examined upon the trial of issues of fact he shall record or report the questions put to the witnesses and the answers thereto given by the witnesses in the words used by the questioners and the witnesses. He shall not be required to report or record the arguments of counsel, but shall record all objections and the ground thereof as stated by counsel, and also the decisions or rulings of the court thereon, and exceptions taken by counsel to such decisions or rulings, and shall, immediately upon the completion of the trial, file his report in such shorthand writing in the office of the clerk of the court where such trial was had, which report shall remain on file for the use

salaries paid to stenographers in New York City to $2,500 per annu and to extend the system to the surrogate court of New York. counties other than New York on trials of issues of fact, in crimin courts and courts of oyer and terminer, the presiding justice w authorized to employ a stenographer, whose duty it should be to fu nish the parties to the trials with a copy of the evidence and proceedin if desired. Under the code of remedial justice revised in 1876 each st nographer is an officer of the court, must take full stenographic not of the testimony and proceedings in each cause and preserve the not for two years or file the same on the request of the presiding judg Transcripts must be made when ordered by the judge or parties en tled to them. The employment of stenographers in the higher cou of the State of New York is now general and an immense amount legislation in reference to reporters will be found in the statute book Not only was this the first State to establish stenographers as office of courts, but it has always been foremost in the use of the art in leg proceedings. New York is divided into eight judicial districts of t supreme court. Each county in the State has a county court presid over by a county judge, with power to appoint a stenographer, and each county, except New York and Kings, the surrogate is authoriz to appoint a stenographer, to be paid a "reasonable compensatio In New York and Kings counties the stenographers are paid fix salaries. By the laws of 1885 there may be appointed by each coun judge of the State a stenographer for the grand jury whose compens tion shall not be less than $5 nor more than $10 per day, to be fix by the board of supervisors. This act applies to all counties having population of more than 75,000 inhabitants, except that of New Yor Stenographers must furnish to the judges of the various courts which they are employed copies of their minutes free of cost, but f every other copy furnished they are allowed in the supreme court cents per folio and in other courts 10 cents per folio, the surrogat court excepted.

NORTH CAROLINA.—A bill to establish a system of court reportin was before the North Carolina legislature in 1891. The measure pass the senate, but was "tabled" in the house.

NORTH DAKOTA.—Dakota authorized, in 1875, the appointment stenographers by the judges of the district courts when such appoi ments would bring about a more economical administration of justic This law was repealed in 1877, but in 1879 a new law was passed appl ing to all the counties of the Territory, except four, and in 1881 t excepted counties were included in its provisions. The present la provides that each court shall have a stenographer, to be appoint by and hold office at the pleasure of the judge. A per diem of $10 paid, and 5 cents a mile is allowed for distance necessarily traveled going to and from his engagements. The fee for transcripts is fixed

lio. There are six judicial circuits in the State, and
l stenographer is employed.

1877 Ohio provided for the appointment of two ste
ters for the court of common pleas in all counties conta
0,000 inhabitants or over, to hold office for a term of thr
ex officio stenographers of the district and probate courts
ties and the superior courts of such cities sitting in gen-
per diem compensation of $10, with 8 cents per folio for
s specified by this act. The present law provides that
courts of common pleas and probate courts in all coun-
g cities of 30,000 inhabitants and over by the last Federal
ppoint two stenographic reporters, skilled in their pro-
official stenographers of such courts, but in counties con-
of 20,000 inhabitants and over, and less than 30,000 by the
ensus, shall appoint one stenographic reporter, and in all
s when, in the opinion of the judge of the court of common
iness requires one. In 1890 special legislation for certain
enacted, these special laws having generally the purpose
stenographers specific yearly salaries in lieu of per diems,
unds by taxes of from $3 to $5 per day in cases reported.
The legislature of 1889 passed an act providing for the
of official reporters in the State circuit courts. Up to the
out three judicial districts are provided with such offi-

ANIA.—In 1866 Pennsylvania authorized the appointment
tent reporters for the district court of Philadelphia, at a
00 each, with 10 cents per hundred words for transcripts
ordering. In 1867 stenographers were authorized for the
s of common pleas of the State, also for the courts in
nty, which last law, however, was repealed in 1868, as
aw of 1866. Special laws were passed from time to time,
5, 1874, the first general law was approved. This law
e various judges of the courts of the Commonwealth to
ir discretion an official stenographer for their judicial
was required to make full shorthand notes of all pro-
rials and was to be paid $10 a day and an additional fee
er hundred words for transcribing his notes into long-
id by the county or attorney or suitor ordering the same.
aw was amended, the transcript fee being made 15 cents
words and the court being required to appoint a steno-
he application of two-thirds of the members of the bar.
e 10, 1881, the duties of the stenographer were more par-
ned. By the act approved May 24, 1887, stationery is
furnished by the county, all testimony must be tran-
s relieved by the court, and the authority to appoint an
rapher for civil courts is made compulsory, although in

the courts of oyer and terminer, general jail delivery, and quarter sessions of the peace the appointment is left to the discretion of the presiding judge. Stenographers hold office during the pleasure of the courts appointing them. During the progress of a trial it is the duty of the stenographer to transcribe such parts of the testimony as may be ordered by the court or required by the parties to the suit, and within a reasonable time after the adjournment of the court to transcribe all notes not previously transcribed, but he may be, and generally is, excused from this, except as to cases where appeals or writs of error are taken to the supreme court, in which cases he must transcribe and file the testimony and charge of the court. For this he is paid by the county. Any commissioner, master, referee, or auditor appointed by any court of the Commonwealth is authorized at the request of the parties to the suit or matter under investigation to appoint a stenographer to take down and transcribe the testimony. An official stenographer has power to appoint an assistant or assistants.

RHODE ISLAND.—A phonographic clerk was authorized in Rhode Island for the supreme court for several years before the passage of the act of 1882, which reads as follows:

The supreme court and court of common pleas may appoint a phonographic clerk who shall hold his office during their pleasure and shall be duly engaged like other clerks of said courts. Such clerks shall report the proceedings in the trial of any action, civil or criminal, whenever so directed by the court and shall receive as compensation therefor a sum not exceeding $6 per day, to be allowed by the court and paid by the general treasurer upon the order of the State auditor, and if the services of such clerk shall be needed in different branches of the same court at the same time he may employ an assistant at the same rate of compensation. Such clerk shall also upon the order of the court transcribe his notes of such report, to be filed with the papers of the case, and for such service the court may make a reasonable allowance to be paid in the manner aforesaid. In other cases he shall make a transcript of the whole or any part of such report at the request of either party to any such action, to be paid for by such party and in case it shall become necessary to use the same in further proceedings in such action, the reasonable cost of such transcript shall be allowed by the court as part of the costs in the case.

On May 29, 1891, this law was amended to read:

The supreme court and court of common pleas may, and, upon request of counsel on either side of a cause, shall appoint shorthand clerks, who shall be residents of the respective counties in which said courts may be in session, and who shall hold their office during the pleasure of the respective courts and shall be duly engaged like other clerks of said courts, and in case there shall be no shorthand clerk resident of the county in which the respective courts may be in session capable or willing to fill the position, the said courts may appoint said clerks at their discretion from any of the other counties.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—In 1870 three circuit court judges in South Carolina were directed to appoint stenographers for their circuits who should take full stenographic notes of all proceedings, including the rulings and charge of the judge, furnishing transcripts to the judge no request and to the parties upon payment for the same at the rate of 10 cents per hundred words. In 1887 this law was repealed, except for

of law by official reporters of district courts within the districts for which they are appointed is prohibited. There are now twenty judicial districts in Nebraska, with the same number of judges and reporters.

NEVADA.—A law providing for court stenographers, similar to that of California, was passed by the legislature of Nevada in 1883.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The supreme court was provided in 1873 with a stenographer for civil and criminal proceedings in the trial terms of court. In 1875 this act was so amended as to apply to the law term of the court.

NEW JERSEY authorized the judge of the circuit court of Hudson County to employ a stenographic reporter and fix his compensation, by a law passed in 1868, and in 1869 a similar law for Passaic County was enacted. In 1871 the judges of the circuit courts were allowed to employ a reporter, whose duties were to attend all trials in said circuit courts and in the courts of oyer and terminer, and exactly and truly take notes and record verbatim all the evidence and proceedings, except the arguments of counsel, and, when requested, to make and furnish true reports to the judge and to each party in such cause. A compensation of $10 per day was provided, and the reporter was allowed to charge parties requesting transcripts at a rate not to exceed 10 cents per hundred words, provided said reports were furnished within one day after request. Towards defraying the expenses of the county, under this act, a fee of $1 was required to be paid to the clerk of the county, to be included in the tax bill of costs and be recoverable as other costs in the suit. By this law all special acts authorizing the appointment of stenographic reporters in particular counties were repealed. By the act approved March 4, 1878, a master in chancery, in certain cases of reference to him of causes pending in the court of chancery, may employ a shorthand reporter. The president judge of any orphan's court was empowered to employ a reporter in 1881, the expense to be paid by the parties appearing before him. By a law approved February 11, 1888, a vice-ordinary or vice-surrogate-general was empowered to employ a reporter for the same purposes that vice-chancellors were allowed to employ such assistants.

NEW YORK.—The law passed by the New York legislature, April 16, 1860, was the earliest State law authorizing the employment of a stenographer by a court. This was embodied in amendments to the code of procedure by David Dudley Field, and it provided that the courts of the first judicial district, embracing the city and county of New York, might direct the employment of a stenographer in such cases as appear to them to require it, and might order the expense occasioned thereby to be paid by the parties, not exceeding, however, $5 a day to each. Stenographers were appointed under this law in the courts of record. In 1863 the stenographer was made a sworn officer of the court, with a salary of $1,500, and was required to take full stenographic notes of all trials. In 1865 the law was further amended so as to increase the

the State prison for ten years or more, on which a conviction has been had. A charge of 5 cents per folio is authorized for certified copies of evidence and proceedings ordered by parties in interest. In 1882 the legislature ordered proceedings against reporters who delay furnishing transcripts or neglect or refuse to comply with the judge's directions in regard to the performances of their duties.

WEST VIRGINIA.—In 1870 the employment of a stenographer was authorized for the first judicial circuit, and in 1881 the legislature repealed the same and provided for the reporting of the courts of the first judicial district and for the allowance of a reasonable compensation for services and expenses. In 1882 a similar law applicable to the fifth judicial circuit was passed.

WISCONSIN.—In 1867 the presiding judge of Dane County was authorized to employ a shorthand reporter and in 1868 reporters were authorized in Racine, Rock and Jefferson counties, the number of counties being increased by enactments in subsequent years. The laws were summarized in 1878 and amended in 1880. The Revised Statutes provide that every circuit court judge may in his discretion appoint one or more phonographic reporters and may remove them at pleasure, to be sworn officers of the court and to receive a compensation not exceeding $10 per day with 5 cents per folio for verbatim transcript and 10 cents a folio when written out in narrative form. The municipal court of Milwaukee was also provided with a reporter. In 1880 judges of county courts with civil jurisdiction were allowed to employ reporters under the provisions empowering circuit judges to make such appoin tments.

WYOMING passed an act for the appointment of a Territorial stenographer and the preservation of evidence, and in 1879 section 5 of that act was stricken out and the compensation reduced. In 1882 the salary was still further reduced.

COURT DECISIONS AFFECTING STENOGRAPHERS.

The decisions of courts in cases relating to stenographers have not been uniform, but some idea of the character of such decisions may be obtained from the following citations and summaries:

Notes of interpreted testimony are not admissible.—54 Cal., 527.

Payment for stenographic work may be required in advance.—58 How. Pr. (N. Y.), 289; 8 Nebr., 22.

The charges for stenographer on hearing before master are not taxable as costs without consent of parties.—18 Blatchford, 507.

Notes of evidence taken by a stenographer duly appointed are not admissible as evidence in the courts of another State.—56 Md., 439, 463.

When transcripts of notes are furnished at the request of counsel, the client must be looked to for payment and not the counsel.—11 N. Y. superior; 581.

the first judicial district, wherein Charleston is located. The legislature on December 22, 1883, passed a law providing for the appointment of a stenographer for the second judicial district, to be paid a yearly salary of $1,200, with 10 cents per hundred words for transcript.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—In 1875 an act was passed by the legislature of the then Territory of Dakota providing for the appointment of a stenographer for each of the districts at $10 per day. This act was repealed in 1877, and a new law passed in 1879. This empowers the judges of the district courts to employ official stenographers who are to receive a per diem from each county where court is held, with 15 cents a folio for transcripts. All laws passed by the Territory hold good in the State until repealed.

TENNESSEE.—There are no official stenographers in Tennessee. The law permits circuit court judges to appoint a stenographer on application of either party to a suit, the party applying to pay all costs of reporting the case.

TEXAS.—The civil code of 1879 provides that for the purpose of preserving the statement of the evidence given on the trial of a cause the court may, and on application of either party shall, employ a stenographer or other competent person to take down the testimony. Reasonable compensation, not to exceed 20 cents per hundred words, shall be allowed such stenographer, to be fixed by the court and taxed in the bill of costs. This statute applies only to the district courts of the State and to civil causes tried therein. There is no statute relative to the employment of stenographers in criminal causes. On account of the lack of provision for a per diem compensation for stenographers there are no regular official reporters in Texas, stenographers being employed only when engaged by the parties to the causes.

UTAH.—The legislature of 1883–'84 provided for official reporters in certain of its courts.

VERMONT.—The act of November 13, 1869, provided that each county court might in its discretion appoint and employ a reporter to fully report the proceedings of said court or any term thereof for the use and convenience of said court and all parties having business therein. The law of 1878 empowered the presiding judge of each county court of common law or equity to employ a stenographer for cases heard in court and of such proceedings in hearings before auditors, referees, and masters in chancery as either the presiding judge or chancellor may order to be reported. Such reporter shall be responsible for the correctness of his reports and of all copies made by him or under his direction and certified to by him to be correct, and he shall within twenty days from the rising of such county court file with the clerk certified copies of the evidence and proceedings in all cases directed by the presiding judge, who is required to order such transcript in all cases founded upon indictments for murder or for any felony, the commission of which may be punished by imprisonment in

the State prison for ten years or more, on which a conviction has been had. A charge of 5 cents per folio is authorized for certified copies of evidence and proceedings ordered by parties in interest. In 1882 the legislature ordered proceedings against reporters who delay furnishing transcripts or neglect or refuse to comply with the judge's directions in regard to the performances of their duties.

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Notes of evidence taken by a stenographer duly appointed are not admissible as evidence in the courts of another State.—56 Md., 439, 463.

When transcripts of notes are furnished at the request of counsel, the client must be looked to for payment and not the counsel.—44 N. Y. superior; 581.

The supreme court can not act on a mere transcript of the stenographer's notes of the testimony not authenticated by the certificate of the trial judge.—43 Mich., 336.

Notes of an official stenographer are legal evidence within the State of the testimony in the case of which they purport to be a record.—43 Mich., 257; 5 Colo., 1.

Delay in filing the stenographer's transcript will not prejudice a party dependent on it in matters relating to further proceedings.—10 Nebr., 449.

Stenographer's minutes of the testimony given upon a former trial by a party who has since left the jurisdiction are admissible.—43 Mich., 257; 5 Colo., 1.

The destruction or loss of the testimony and proceedings of the trial taken by the stenographer does not of itself constitute ground for a new trial.—2 Dak., 377.

Where a copy of the shorthand report of the evidence is not signed and attested by the reporter nor authenticated in any way by the judge it can not be regarded as a bill of exceptions.—77 Ind., 537.

The appellate court has no right to consider the stenographer's notes or any fact therein when such notes are not made a part of the bill of exceptions.—N. W. Rep., Vol. 13, 889 Wis. case.

The State or county employing an official reporter is not liable for a transcript made for an attorney in the case, though it may become a part of the record for which the county is liable.—98 Pa., 570.

The notes of evidence taken by a phonographic reporter of a court are prima facie evidence only in the court below and can not be considered in the supreme court.—43 Cal., 176.

Where the minutes of the stenographer are relied upon to show what was certified to upon a former trial such minutes must be authenticated as correct.—3 Mich., 311.

Though a shorthand reporter be appointed and act in the trial of a cause, it is wholly immaterial by whom the evidence has been written out, if it be shown by a bill of exceptions purporting to contain all the evidence.—84 Ind., 287.

The testimony of the reporter based on his own notes is incompetent to prove the testimony of a witness given in a foreign language at a former trial and taken down by the reporter from the interpreter.—56 Cal., 119.

A case in chancery may properly be settled on the stenographer's notes where the trial judge was out of office before the time for settling the case expires, and the procedure would be substantially the same as in settling a bill of exceptions at law.—49 Mich., 639.

It is clear that any sworn officer of court, whether it be the reporter, clerk, or other officer, when he takes the witness stand as a witness must take the oath of a witness. The reporter reads his notes of a former trial as an attorney would read his; their authority and correctness should be attested by oath.—54 Vt., 83.

There is no rule of law which makes the stenographer the only competent witness in a case where it is sought to impeach a witness by showing that he testified differently at another trial.—65 Me., 466.

A certified copy of the testimony of a witness as taken by an official stenographer is legal evidence to prove the testimony of such witness, and is not in contravention of the State constitution.—69 Me., 400.

Stenographer's notes of testimony given on a former trial are not admissible in evidence if he has not testified to their accuracy, or if they are not in some way authenticated.—44 Mich., 438.

When the stenographer's report of the evidence is made a part of the bill of exceptions and there is a conflict between it and the facts alleged in the formal part of the bill of exceptions, the report will control.—63 Me., 437.

The services of a stenographer must be paid for by the person employing him in the absence of an agreement that this shall be borne by both parties. It can not be allowed as costs in the cause.—Phila. Reps., C. P. II, 244.

Unofficial stenographic notes of the testimony of a witness before a coroner are not evidence for the defendant on a subsequent trial for murder, though the witness were dead.—29 Pittsburg Law Journal, 225.

The minutes of a stenographer taken at a trial are not, in civil cases, official; they form no part of the record and can only be made a part of the record by authentication by the judge's signature after settlement of the bill of exceptions or case.—2 Dak., 377.

By the act of May 15, 1874, it is enacted that the stenographer's notes "shall be deemed and held to be official and the best authority in any matter of dispute." The law has reference to the notes made up under the eye and direction and with the approval of the judge.—79 Pa., 436.

When, for the purpose of contradicting a witness, one party offers extracts from the testimony of such witness at a former trial, the other party is entitled to put in so much of the remainder as is relevant, and for that purpose may call the stenographer and have him read the original minutes.—71 Me., 394.

One can not introduce the stenographic notes of testimony given on a former trial without having exhausted the best sources of information reasonably accessible to learn whether the witness himself can not be found; this was so held where the witness' wife was not questioned as to his whereabouts.—47 Mich., 10.

The stenographer's transcript of his notes of the evidence in a chancery cause where the testimony was taken in open court, which has been merely filed in the cause and a copy thereof sent up with the return without being authenticated by the circuit judge as a case settled as required by statute, will not be considered on appeal as the evidence in the cause.—33 Mich., 500.

The stenographer's minutes do not bear upon their face any such evidence of accuracy as the signing by the witness himself gives to a deposition. Where he has not personally attested them so as to make them evidence against himself he can not insist that their accuracy shall be assumed in his favor.—48 Mich., 43.

The legislature in providing for the assistance of shorthand writers did not intend that their notes should have more force than judges' minutes, and no one has ever supposed the latter to possess the inherent character of written evidence. They are allowed to be made use of in various ways and under various circumstances, but not as depositions or evidence of record.—Wharton's Evidence, sections 180 and 825.

SHORTHAND SOCIETIES.

The earliest shorthand associations organized in America had for their purpose the same objects as have brought into existence thousands of similar associations in Germany and other foreign countries—the dissemination of a knowledge of the art. These associations did much to introduce phonography in the United States and worked zealously for the writing and printing reform.

As early as 1848 the American Phonographic Society was in existence and there were local societies at New York; Brooklyn, N. Y.; Herkimer, N. Y.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Marshall, Mich.; Stillwater, N. Y.; Elizabeth, N. J.; St. Louis, Mo.; Lockport, N. Y.; New Bedford, Mass.; Stamford, Conn.; Wankesha, Wis.: Medina, N. Y.; Birmingham, Conn.; Westfield, Mass.; Dubuque, Iowa; Drummondville, S. C.; Wellsboro, Pa.; Farmersville, N. Y.; Little Fort, Ill.; Salem, Ohio; Falmouth, Mass.; Cambria, N. Y.; Southport, Wis.; Beloit, Wis.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Boston, Mass.; and Big Boone, Ky.

Another of the early associations was the American Phonographic League. When its constitution was revised February 26, 1853, it had a membership of 90. The New York State Phonetic Association was resolved September 6, 1854, into the American Writing and Printing Reform Association. The American Phonetic Association, devoted to the dissemination of phonography, phonetic longhand, and phonotypy, existed for many years.

The Standard Phonographic Reporters' Union (1866) is believed to have been the first organization of professional writers of shorthand in the United States. The Pennsylvania Phonographic Society was formed in 1871; the Stolze Stenographic Society of New York City, the Law Stenographers' Association of the City of New York, and the New York Munson Phonographic Society, in 1872.

A large number of local associations have been organized, but most of these have existed for a short period only. The objects of these local associations have not been the dissemination of a single system of shorthand, but they have generally been composed of writers of various

GEORGIA. *Atlanta.*—Atlanta Stenographic Association; organized January 24, 1891; meetings held at 494 Whitehall street; membership, 52. President, A. F. Cooledge; vice-president, A. C. Briscoe; secretary, Georgia Webster; treasurer, E. C. Crichton.

ILLINOIS. *Chicago.*—Chicago Stenographers' Association; organized May 1, 1889; rooms at 116 Dearborn street; membership, 75. President, Isaac S. Dement; first vice-president, Irwin E. Rockwell; second vice-president, Dan. Brown; secretary and treasurer, Sidney S. C. Stewart.

Joliet.—Joliet Stenographers' Association; organized February 21, 1890; meetings held at 317 Jefferson street; membership, 18. President, George Hingston; vice-president, Miss Jennie Gray; secretary and treasurer, Mrs. Loie Ditto; librarian, Miss Kate Baldwin.

INDIANA.—Indiana State Stenographers' Association; organized August 27, 1889; membership, 76. President, J. D. Strachan, Brazil; vice-president, S. P. Carboy, Valparaiso; secretary, Miss Emma Elliott,

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Chicago.—The Stenographers' Club of Chicago. President, C. H. Rush; vice-president, Geo. H. Bradshaw; secretary, Miss L. E. Icely; treasurer, Miss Laura Nardin.

INDIAN TERRITORY. *Muscogee.*—Muscogee Stenographers' Association. President, Wm. Fletcher Whitaker; secretary, Wm. A. Smiley; treasurer, Alexander Sondenheimer.

INDIANA.—Indiana State Stenographers' Association. President, W. S. Garber, Indianapolis; vice-president, W. E. McDermut, Fort Wayne; secretary, Geo. B. Lockwood, Peru; treasurer, Miss Jennie T. Masson, Indianapolis; librarian, Mrs. A. D. Leach, Sullivan.

Fort Wayne.—Fort Wayne Business College Stenographers' Association. President, W. E. McDermut; vice-president, Charles Miller; secretary, Ira Sunday; treasurer, Miss Kitty McLaughlin.

IOWA.—Iowa State Stenographers' Association. President, Walter Irish, Des Moines; vice-presidents, Miss Laura Flickinger, Council Bluffs; Miss Dora M. Thomas, Des Moines; F. M. Webster, Decorah; Miss Lizzie Kehoe, Des Moines; secretary and treasurer, Miss Carrie A. Clarke, Des Moines.

KANSAS. *Hutchinson.*—Hutchinson Stenographic Association; organized March 16, 1892. President, Carr W. Taylor; vice-president, Miss Dora Vestal; secretary, Ed. F. Harsha; treasurer, Miss Grace Breazle.

LOUISIANA. *New Orleans.*—New Orleans Stenographers' Association. Honorary president, Charles Nathan; president, Arthur J. Peters; first vice-president, C. F. Porter; second vice-president, Miss Bertha Klute; third vice-president, Miss A. Morales; secretary, Miss M. L. Breeden; assistant secretary, Mrs. P. McIntyre; financial secretary, R. S. Cross; treasurer, B. T. Walshe, jr.; librarian, Mrs. H. M. McCants.

MASSACHUSETTS.—New England Shorthand Reporters' Association; organized in 1890. President, J. M. W. Yerrinton, Boston, Mass.; vice-presidents, F. G. Morris, Northampton, Mass.; R. Small, Portland, Me.; Wells H. Johnson, Concord, N. H.; John H. Mimms, St. Albans, Vt.; Edwin R. Gardner, Providence, R. I.; Frank G. Fowler, Bridgeport, Conn.; recording secretary, Frank H. Burt, Newton, Mass.; corresponding secretary, William B. Wright, Boston, Mass.; treasurer, James P. Bacon, Boston, Mass.

Boston.—Boston Shorthand Club, 32 Pemberton Square; organized October 21, 1891. President, Richard F. Sullivan; first vice-president, Ewing W. Hamlen;

ation St. Louis, Mo.; Gabelsberger Phonographic Society of Concordia Seminary, St. Louis, Mo.; St. Paul Stenographers' Association; San Jose (Cal.) Stenographers' and Typewriters' Association; Utah Stenographers' Association; Wichita (Kans.) Stenographers' Association; Wilmington (N. C.) Stenographers' Association.

The following associations are now (August, 1891) in existence:*

CONNECTICUT. *Hartford.*—Hartford Stenographers' Association; organized November 5, 1889; meetings held at 271 Main street; membership, 73. Vice-president and acting president W. Farrand Felch; secretary, P. C. F. Hoffman; assistant secretary, Isabelle Thompson; treasurer, Grace M. Barnard; librarian, Minnia B. Fuller.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. *Washington.*—The Stenographers' Association of Washington, D. C.; organized April 9, 1891; meetings held at 1505 Pennsylvania avenue; membership, 70. President, Dennis F. Murphy; first vice-president, B. W. Hanna; second vice-president, Fred Irland; corresponding secretary, F. O. Congdon; recording secretary, Miss M. M. Lammond; treasurer, E. J. McCristal.

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* Since the collection of the data above given the associations named below have held meetings, and, so far as known, still exist (April, 1893):

ALABAMA. *Mobile.*—The Stenographers' Association of Mobile. President, F. O. Hoffman; vice-presidents, Misses Gazzam, Campbell, Lyons, Cox, and Mr. Valentine; secretary and treasurer, T. B. Gillin.

CALIFORNIA. *Los Angeles.*—Los Angeles Stenographers' Association; organized in the fall of 1892. President, F. H. Longley; vice-president, E. L. King; secretary, Mrs. Magrew; treasurer, Miss Ida Newkirk.

COLORADO. *Denver.*—Denver Stenographers' Association. President, Chas. W. Reitler; first vice-president, C. A. Grommet; second vice president, Miss Clara Irwin; secretary, Miss Minnie A. Sanford; treasurer, W. A. Butchart.

CONNECTICUT. *New Haven.*—New Haven Stenographers' Association. President, E. J. Perkins; vice-president, Miss Annie Starkweather; secretary, W. R. Hoppen; treasurer, Miss Hattie Shepard.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. *Washington.*—Stenographers' Association of Washington, D. C. Secretary, Mrs. E. F. Rowley. Other officers the same as given above.

GEORGIA. *Augusta.*—Augusta Stenographic Association. President, Julian F. Reid; vice-president, Rosetta Kelly; treasurer, J. F. Davis; secretary, E. H. Hogarth; librarian, Miss Aldsworth.

Macon.—Macon Stenographers' Association; organized May 18, 1892. President, C. E. Anderson; vice-president, H. N. Hannahan; secretary and treasurer, R. L. Varne.

ILLINOIS. *Bloomington.*—Bloomington Stenographers' Association. President, Clayton C. Herr; first vice-president, Miss Fannie S. Roberts; second vice-president, Edward Harkness; secretary, Miss Margaret E. King; librarian, Anna M. Campbell; treasurer, L. F. Fulwiler.

Bloomington.—McLean County Stenographers' Association. President, C. E. Baker; first vice-president, Frank Fisher; second vice-president, Miss Minnie Walker; secretary, Miss Mattie A. Long; treasurer, Frank Jacoby.

Chicago.—Chicago Law Stenographers' Association. President, David S. Geer; secretary, J. L. Bennett; treasurer, R. V. Moore.

Chicago.—National Association of Women Stenographers. President, Miss Elizabeth C. Merrill; first vice-president, Miss Harriet A. Shinn; second vice-president, Mrs. Mary Wilcox; corresponding secretary, Miss Martha Louise Allen.

GEORGIA. *Atlanta.*—Atlanta Stenographic Association; organized January 24, 1891; meetings held at 49½ Whitehall street; membership, 52. President, A. F. Cooledge; vice-president, A. C. Briscoe; secretary, Georgia Webster; treasurer, E. C. Crichton.

ILLINOIS. *Chicago.*—Chicago Stenographers' Association; organized May 1, 1889; rooms at 116 Dearborn street; membership, 75. President, Isaac S. Dement; first vice-president, Irwin E. Rockwell; second vice-president, Dan. Brown; secretary and treasurer, Sidney S. C. Stewart.

Joliet.—Joliet Stenographers' Association; organized February 21, 1890; meetings held at 317 Jefferson street; membership, 18. President, George Hingston; vice-president, Miss Jennie Gray; secretary and treasurer, Mrs. Loie Ditto; librarian, Miss Kate Baldwin.

INDIANA.—Indiana State Stenographers' Association; organized August 27, 1889; membership, 76. President, J. D. Strachan, Brazil; vice-president, S. P. Carboy, Valparaiso; secretary, Miss Emma Elliott,

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Chicago.—The Stenographers' Club of Chicago. President, C. H. Rush; vice-president, Geo. H. Bradshaw; secretary, Miss L. E. Icely; treasurer, Miss Laura Nardin.

INDIAN TERRITORY. *Muscogee.*—Muscogee Stenographers' Association. President, Wm. Fletcher Whitaker; secretary, Wm. A. Smiley; treasurer, Alexander Sondenheimer.

INDIANA.—Indiana State Stenographers' Association. President, W. S. Garber, Indianapolis; vice-president, W. E. McDermut, Fort Wayne; secretary, Geo. B. Lockwood, Peru; treasurer, Miss Jennie T. Masson, Indianapolis; librarian, Mrs. A. D. Leach, Sullivan.

Fort Wayne.—Fort Wayne Business College Stenographers' Association. President, W. E. McDermut; vice-president, Charles Miller; secretary, Ira Sunday; treasurer, Miss Kitty McLaughlin.

IOWA.—Iowa State Stenographers' Association. President, Walter Irish, Des Moines; vice-presidents, Miss Laura Flickinger, Council Bluffs; Miss Dora M. Thomas, Des Moines; F. M. Webster, Decorah; Miss Lizzie Kehoe, Des Moines; secretary and treasurer, Miss Carrie A. Clarke, Des Moines.

KANSAS. *Hutchinson.*—Hutchinson Stenographic Association; organized March 16, 1892. President, Carr W. Taylor; vice-president, Miss Dora Vestal; secretary, Ed. F. Harsha; treasurer, Miss Grace Breazle.

LOUISIANA. *New Orleans.*—New Orleans Stenographers' Association. Honorary president, Charles Nathan; president, Arthur J. Peters; first vice-president, C. F. Porter; second vice-president, Miss Bertha Klute; third vice-president, Miss A. Morales; secretary, Miss M. L. Breeden; assistant secretary, Mrs. P. McIntyre; financial secretary, R. S. Cross; treasurer, B. T. Walshe, jr.; librarian, Mrs. H. M. McCants.

MASSACHUSETTS.—New England Shorthand Reporters' Association; organized in 1890. President, J. M. W. Yerrinton, Boston, Mass.; vice-presidents, F. G. Morris, Northampton, Mass.; R. Small, Portland, Me.; Wells H. Johnson, Concord, N. H.; John H. Mimms, St. Albans, Vt.; Edwin R. Gardner, Providence, R. I.; Frank G. Fowler, Bridgeport, Conn.; recording secretary, Frank H. Burt, Newton, Mass.; corresponding secretary, William B. Wright, Boston, Mass.; treasurer, James P. Bacon, Boston, Mass.

Boston.—Boston Shorthand Club, 32 Pemberton Square; organized October 21, 1891. President, Richard F. Sullivan; first vice-president, Ewing W. Hamlen;

Evansville; treasurer, F. W. Wood, Indianapolis; librarian, Miss Jennie T. Masson, Indianapolis.

Evansville.—Evansville Stenographers' Association; organized April 22, 1890; room in B. M. A. building; membership, 30. President, W. P. Clarke; vice-president, Miss Emma Elliott; secretary, Miss Carrie Smith; treasurer, Day Anderson; librarian, Miss Emma Rosenfeld.

Fort Wayne.—Fort Wayne Stenographers' Association; organized June 22, 1891; meetings held at Fort Wayne Business College; membership, 35. President, W. E. McDermut; vice-president, T. J. Logan; secretary, C. C. Miller; treasurer, Florence A. Miller.

IOWA.—Iowa State Stenographers' Association; organized July 16, 1889; membership, 84. President, Walter Irish, Des Moines; vice-presidents, Miss Dora M. Thomas, Des Moines; Mrs. Laura Flickenger,

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second vice-president, Miss M. E. Fritz; secretary, Miss N. A. Dwyer; treasurer, H. W. Putney.

Boston.—Hub Stenographic Association, 181 Washington street.

Lynn.—Lynn Stenographers' Association; organized February 13, 1893. President, J. J. McGuffin; vice-president, Miss Mamie Green; secretary and treasurer, Miss E. M. Sillsbee.

MICHIGAN.—Michigan State Law Stenographers' Association. President, Thomas I. Daniel, Jackson; secretary, George C. Higbee, Marquette.

MISSOURI. *Kansas City.*—Kansas City Stenographers' Association.

MONTANA. *Helena.*—Helena Stenographers' Association; organized January 24, 1891. President, F. W. Mettler; vice-president, E. G. Worden; treasurer, W. I. Harrison; secretary, J. P. Stafford.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. *Manchester.*—Manchester Stenographers' Association; organized March 24, 1892. President, A. E. Herrick; vice-president, James P. Crowley; secretary, Miss Hattie E. Daniels; treasurer, Miss Alice M. Stuart.

NEW JERSEY. *Paterson.*—Paterson Stenographers' Association; organized March 17, 1892. President, Robert Armstrong; vice-president, Miss Anna H. Childs; secretary, Miss Minnie Yorks; assistant secretary, Miss E. M. Anger; treasurer, Isaac Delamater.

NEW YORK.—New York State Stenographers' Association. President, George R. Bishop, New York; vice-president, Charles F. King, Glens Falls; secretary and treasurer, William Loeb, jr., Albany; librarian, Mrs. Eliza B. Burnz, New York.

Amsterdam.—The Amsterdam Academy Shorthand Association; organized May 10, 1892. President, A. W. Lowe; vice-president, J. P. McElwain; secretary and treasurer, Miss Mabel G. Shelley; librarian, Miss A. Donlon.

Binghamton.—Association of Stenographers and Bookkeepers. President, J. F. Riley; secretary, Miss Agnes Tierney.

Brooklyn.—Brooklyn Stenographers' Association, No. 440 Franklin avenue. President, H. J. Rippel; first vice-president, S. S. Tuthill; second vice-president, George H. Speck; corresponding secretary, E. F. Treat; assistant secretary, Edmund Wright; recording secretary, Miss Ruth M. Hildreth; treasurer, E. M. Martin; financial secretary, Edward G. Baltz.

Elmira.—Elmira Stenographers' Association; organized December 5, 1891. President, J. W. Roberts; vice-president and secretary, L. D. Shoemaker.

Gloversville.—Gloversville Stenographic Circle. President, E. A. Sutliff; vice-president, M. E. Bushnell; secretary, Mr. Enerick; treasurer, L. M. Van Derzee.

New York.—German-American Stenographic Society "Gabelsberger." President, Adolph Frank; secretary, Dr. Rudolf Tombo; treasurer, C. Strunck; librarian, H. Hugo.

Council Bluffs; F. M. Webster, Decorah; W. S. Briggs, Ottumwa; secretary and treasurer, Miss Carrie A. Clarke, Des Moines; librarian, Miss Lizzie Kehoe, Des Moines.

KANSAS.—Kansas Court Reporters' Association; organized December 27, 1889; membership, 20. President, John H. Fazel, Wichita; vice-president, B. F. Martin, Alma; secretary, F. K. Raymond; assistant secretary, Mrs. Ella C. Porter, Fort Scott; treasurer, C. E. Carroll, Alma.

Topeka.—The Topeka Stenographers' Association; organized March 1, 1891; meetings held at 606 Kansas avenue; membership, 22. President, J. M. Hawkins; vice-president, H. C. Caldwell; secretary, W. S. Chaney; treasurer, E. C. Beynon; librarian, R. L. Spargur.

New York.—Harlem Stenographers' Association. President, Tony H. Frohlich; vice-president, Richard Ritter; treasurer, John Groshans; financial secretary, William Shupp; recording secretary, Henry Rentz.

New York.—Metropolitan Stenographers' Association; club house, 333 W. Twenty-third street. President, H. C. Ross; vice-presidents, W. T. Salter and G. W. P. Ramsey; secretary, H. W. Brent; treasurer, J. J. Haley; assistant treasurer, John W. Lafferty; assistant secretary, Wilfred I. Harrison; assistant librarian, W. J. Finnan.

New York.—The Stenographers' Association of the City of New York. President, W. H. Spedding; first vice-president, E. G. Ostrander; second vice-president, Miss F. V. Gross; secretary, G. Haller; treasurer, Charles Hoberg.

Port Jervis.—The Pitman-Howard Stenographers' Correspondence Association; organized 1892. President, Daniel J. Munday, Philadelphia, Pa.; secretary, George M. Laubshire, Port Jervis, N. Y.; treasurer, Richard P. Rutland, Philadelphia, Pa.

Syracuse.—Syracuse Stenographic Association. President, J. A. Dakin; first vice-president, Miss S. M. Henley; second vice-president, J. M. Reen; secretary, John Stedman; corresponding secretary, Miss Jessie E. Murray; assistant secretary, Miss Gertrude Ellison; treasurer, Raymond Clapp.

OHIO.—Ohio State Stenographers' Association. President, J. G. Pomerene, Cleveland; first vice-president, Charles J. Hall, Dayton; second vice-president, H. K. Sauder, Akron; secretary and treasurer, Mrs. S. Louise Patteson, Cleveland; librarian, Jerome B. Howard, Cincinnati.

Akron.—Akron Stenographers' Association. President, H. K. Sauder; vice-president, H. A. Miller; secretary and treasurer, Etta Todd; assistant secretary and treasurer, Emma Graham.

Cleveland.—Cleveland Stenographers' Association. President, A. R. Bailey; vice-president, Mrs. S. Louise Patteson; secretary Miss Anna M. Kosbab.

Columbus.—East Side Stenographic Circle. President, Rev. W. C Holliday; vice-president, John Payne; secretary, Miss Nettie Ganong.

Gallion.—Gallion Stenographers' Association; organized May, 1891. Secretary, E. E. Farnum.

Oxford.—Oxford Stenographers' Association. President, Miss Alice Tucker.

Toledo.—Toledo Stenographers' Association.

PENNSYLVANIA. *Philadelphia.*—The New Century Stenographic Association. President, Miss Viola Richmond; secretary, Miss F. Arthur.

Cooperstown.—Cooperstown Stenographers' Association. Secretary, J. W. Beers.

Pittsburg.—Pittsburg Stenographers' Association. President, A. M. Martin; vice-president, H. M. Kuester; secretary, Fred. B. Sankey; assistant secretary, G. D. Turner; treasurer, George Womsley.

Scranton.—Scranton Stenographers' Association. President, John Taylor; first

Wellington.—Wellington Shorthand Society; organized May 1, 1891; membership, 12. President, J. R. Davis; vice-president, Imger Wilson; secretary-treasurer, C. J. Wolaver; librarian, C. Welch.

KENTUCKY. *Louisville.*—Louisville Stenographers' Association; organized June 12, 1891; meetings held temporarily at Bryant and Stratton College; membership, 15. President, A. F. Steber; first vice-president, S. G. Rosson; second vice-president, Miss Anna M. Roth; secretary, J. L. Riehm; assistant secretary, Miss Claudia C. Shank; treasurer, Miss Sarah Diefel; librarian, Leslie T. Eastin.

LOUISIANA. *New Orleans.*—The New Orleans Stenographers' Association; organized August 10, 1889; rooms at No. 21 Prytania street; membership, 80. President, John E. Huffman; honorary president,

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vice-president, C. P. O'Malley; second vice-president, Miss Margery Munson; third vice-president, Miss Kate Potts; recording secretary, Miss D. A. Jones; corresponding secretary, F. W. Emerich; treasurer, F. A. Branda.

RHODE ISLAND.—Rhode Island Stenographers' Association. Secretary, Miss M. C. Almy.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Palmetto State Stenographers' Association. President, William F. Bird, Charleston; vice-president and secretary, H. E. Gyles, Charleston; treasurer, Miss L. W. Bicaise.

TENNESSEE. *Chattanooga.*—Chattanooga Stenographers' Association; organized February, 1892. President, Harry L. Cook; first vice-president, Miss Jennie Bell; second vice-president, W. C. Stephens; treasurer, Miss Nellie Bennett; secretary, F. A. Moody.

Nashville.—Nashville Stenographers' Association, organized January 6, 1893. President, James H. Jackson; first vice-president, Miss Anna Hageman; second vice-president, S. W. Harwood; secretary, Mrs. Anna F. Hickman; treasurer, W. B. Shearon.

TEXAS. *Dallas.*—Dallas Stenographers' Association. President, F. C. Pierce; vice-president, W. R. Gumm; secretary and treasurer, Miss Nicholson; assistant secretary, Miss I. B. Rowans.

Fort Worth.—Fort Worth Stenographers' Union. Secretary *pro tem.*, Miss Pearl Eddleman.

Galveston.—Galveston Stenographers' Association. President, H. H. Harper; vice-president, C. K. Powers; secretary, C. F. White; treasurer, Mr. Abernathy; librarian, Miss K. F. Cameron.

Waco.—Waco Stenographers' Union; organized November 11, 1892. President, Mamie Warner; vice-president, John Eaton; secretary, R. A. Hanrick; treasurer, Miss Bree.

VIRGINIA. *Roanoke.*—The Stenographers' Association of Roanoke; organized March 24, 1891. President, F. Helvestine; vice-president, H. M. Hooker; secretary, C. A. Carpenter; treasurer, G. L. Hart.

WISCONSIN. *Janesville.*—Bookkeepers and Stenographers' Association. President, Arthur Harris; vice-president, Emma Sheofor; secretary, Emma Schmidley; treasurer, George W. Baird.

Milwaukee.—Milwaukee Stenographers' Association. President, H. Mitchell Wilmot; vice-president, Miss Ida Sanford; secretary, A. Langtree; assistant secretary, Miss H. Phillips; treasurer, Jno. Maxwell.

Milwaukee.—Milwaukee Stenographers' Society. President, Henry D. Goodwin; vice-presidents, C. G. Porter, Miss Fannie Moran, Raymond R. Frazier, W. S. Droppers; secretary, Miss Alice E. Stager; assistant secretary, T. N. Brown; treasurer, George H. Burnham.

West Superior.—West Superior Stenographers' Union.

Charles E. Nathan; first vice-president, Miss M. L. Breeden; second vice-president, L. L. Purvis; third vice-president, R. S. Cross; secretary, A. J. Peters; assistant secretary, Mrs. P. McIntyre; financial secretary, J. H. Eddy; treasurer, Eug. Bacarisse; librarian, Miss M. Winterhalder.

MAINE. *Portland.*—Portland Stenographers' Association; organized November 5, 1889; meetings held at Philharmonic Hall; membership, 50. President, Ruel Small; first vice president, Bates Torrey; second vice president, Miss H. A. Larrabee; secretary, Miss A. L. Sawyer; treasurer, H. C. Farr.

MASSACHUSETTS. *Boston.*—The Hall Stenographic Association; organized in December, 1890; meetings held at 657 Washington street; membership, 50. President, A. O. Hall; vice-president, H. E. Maynard; secretary and treasurer, M. C. Hall.

MICHIGAN.—Michigan State Law Stenographers' Association; organized December 26, 1890; membership, 27. President, Henry F. Walch, Grand Rapids; vice-president, George Gattrell, Marshall; secretary and treasurer, George C. Higbee, Marquette.

MINNESOTA. *St. Paul.*—Stenographers' Business Association of St. Paul; organized January 16, 1890; meetings held in court-house building; membership, 20. President, P. L. Wing; first vice-president, F. Shelberg; second vice-president, Will U. Smith; secretary, J. W. Rank; assistant secretary, Miss Maggie E. Barry.

MISSOURI. *Kansas City.*—Kansas City Stenographers' Association; organized May 10, 1890; membership, 146. President, A. P. Barnett; vice-president, M. A. Goodwin; secretary, T. W. Van Cleave; treasurer, D. A. Parsons.

St. Joseph.—St. Joseph Stenographers' Association; organized December 13, 1890; meetings held at Electric City Business College; membership, 25. President, C. O. Johnson; vice-president, D. W. Stauber; recording secretary, Nora Lee Yeager; corresponding secretary, James Christensen; treasurer, Charles A. Clark.

NEBRASKA.—The Nebraska State Stenographers' Association; organized June 2, 1888; annual meetings held at Lincoln; membership, 20. President, E. R. Mockett, Lincoln; vice-president, George Coupland, Elgin; secretary and treasurer, Jno. W. Brewster, Kearney.

NEW JERSEY. *Trenton.*—Trenton Stenographers' Association; organized June 1, 1891. President, Kendrick C. Hill; vice-president, J. William Backes; recording secretary, Mrs. William L. Keephart; corresponding secretary, Miss Stella Garrish; librarian, Mrs. Ida M. Muse.

NEW YORK.—The New York State Stenographers' Association; organized August 18, 1876; membership (active), 67. President, Thomas R. Griffith, Rochester; vice-president, Mrs. Clara E. Brockway, Brooklyn; secretary and treasurer, Mrs. Clara A. White, Elmira; librarian, Mrs. Eliza B. Burnz, New York.

Brooklyn.—The Brooklyn Stenographers' Association; organized February 17, 1890; club house, 207 Washington avenue; membership, 177. President, W. P. Charles; vice-president, Charles S. Findlay; second vice-president, Zander Snyder; secretary, H. J. Rippel; assistant secretary, Daniel A. Sammis; recording secretary, Miss J. M. Hayes; treasurer, E. M. Martin.

Brooklyn.—The Society of American Phonographers; organized in March, 1890; membership, 20. Honorary secretary, Arthur Wilmott, 1039 Fulton street, Brooklyn, N. Y.

New York.—German-American Stenographic Society "Gabelsberger;" organized October 25, 1884; meetings at 156 Second avenue; membership, 46. President, Albert Stürcke; secretary, Dr. Rudolf Tombo; treasurer, Hermann P. Klittke; librarian, Eugene H. Waul.

New York.—Harlem Stenographic Association; organized April 1, 1890; incorporated October 10, 1890; meetings held at 2370 Second avenue; membership, about 60. President, Charles A. Wilhoft; first vice-president, Frank T. Noble; second vice-president, Marguerite E. Dittmar; recording secretary, Robert A. McClellan; first corresponding secretary, Frederick Schreiber, jr.; second corresponding secretary, Ida Hoffman; treasurer, George W. Crowley; editor, Frank P. Richardson.

New York.—The International Association of Stolze Stenographers, New York; organized August 4, 1891; meetings held at 12 East Eighth street; membership, 40. President, F. O. Dettmann; first vice-president, Paul Bock; second vice-president, James Dettmann; English secretary, M. Lewy; German secretary, F. Pruppacher; treasurer, E. Tausig; librarian, C. E. Pfau.

New York.—Metropolitan Stenographers' Association; organized November 24, 1885; incorporated September 27, 1888; meetings held at 333 West Twenty-third street; membership, 500. President, H. C. Ross; first vice-president, James Feely; second vice-president, J. J. A. Cottrell; secretary, John R. Geary; treasurer, D. H. Thomas; assistant treasurer, G. Burt Myrick; librarian, B. Wood; assistant librarian, Miss G. V. Stevenson.

New York.—The Stenographers' Association of the City of New York; organized November 24, 1884; meetings held at 95 Lexington avenue; membership, about 400. President, T. M. Wall; first vice-president, J. N. Kimball; second vice-president, F. G. Effray; secretary, F. B. Porter; treasurer, Charles Hoberg; assistant treasurer, E. G. Goldfinch.

New York.—Stolze'scher Stenographen-verein zu New York; organized October 21, 1874; meetings held at 26½ First street; membership, 36. President, Ernst Pingel; secretary, Eugen Daiber; cashier, August Hofman; treasurer, William Friedrich; librarian, John Wieler.

New York.—Women Stenographers and Typewritists' Union; organized April 21, 1891; meetings held temporarily at 142 East Fifty-fifth

street; membership, 16. Chairman, Therese Aub; corresponding secretary and treasurer, Henrietta H. Stoddart; recording secretary, Lucia Levy.

Rochester.—Flower City Stenographers' Association; organized April 13, 1890; meetings held at county judge's chambers, court-house; membership, 50. President, A. P. Little; first vice-president, W. R. Lansing; second vice-president, Miss E. M. Earles; secretary, Miss Annie H. Croughton; treasurer, F. M. C. Wellar.

NORTH CAROLINA. *Raleigh.*—Raleigh Shorthand Writers' Association; organized May 3, 1890; membership, 10. President, William Easdale; vice-president, Henry W. Miller; secretary and treasurer, Weldon T. Smith.

OHIO.—Ohio Stenographers' Association; organized August 14, 1883; membership at date of organization, 70. President, John Collins, Dayton; first vice-president, W. H. Pritchard, New Lisbon; second vice-president, H. K. Sander, Akron; secretary, Mrs. S. Louise Patteson, Cleveland; librarian, Jerome B. Howard, Cincinnati.

Canton.—Canton Stenographers' Association; organized March 12, 1889; meetings held at Canton Business College; membership, 15. President, G. W. Shaver; vice-president, Miss Alice Jones; secretary, Oudie Miller; treasurer, P. Philippi.

Cleveland.—The Cleveland Stenographers' Association; organized January 1, 1889, reorganized and incorporated March 31, 1891; meetings held at 50 Euclid avenue; membership, 75. President, L. D. Wood; first vice-president, Norman S. Rose; second vice-president, Miss Ida M. Sieplein; secretary and treasurer, W. F. Krenkel; assistant secretary and treasurer, Miss Rye Latimer.

Oxford.—Oxford Stenographers' Association; organized October 14, 1890; meetings held at Oxford College for Young Ladies; membership, 12. President, Miss Lizzie Smith; vice president, Miss Lizzie De Witt; secretary-treasurer, Miss Minnie Clark; librarian, Miss Alice Tucker.

PENNSYLVANIA. *Philadelphia.*—The New Century Stenographic Association; organized in October, 1888; meetings held at 1132 Girard street; membership, 61, of which number 20 are associate members. President, Miss Ida E. Turner; vice-president, Miss Jessie Preston; recording secretary, Miss Margaret L. Welsh; corresponding secretary, Miss Fanny Arthur; treasurer, Miss Clara Bold; librarian, Miss Viola O. Richmond.*

Philadelphia.—The Philadelphia Stenographers' Association;* organized March 22, 1889; meetings held at 1134 Girard street. President, Francis H. Hemperley; vice president, Benjamin S. Banks; second vice-president, Miss Sue R. Wilkins; secretary, George H. Hardy; assistant secretary, Miss Agnes E. Goodwin; treasurer, Miss Jennie Mac Harg; librarian, Eugene McIlhone; chairman of executive committee, James B. Bonner.

* No longer existing.

RHODE ISLAND.—Rhode Island Stenographers' Association; organized January 21, 1885; meetings held at Butler Exchange, Providence, R. I.; membership, 43. President, T. J. Griffin; vice-president, D. McAuslan; secretary, Miss M. C. Almy; treasurer, E. L. Rich.

TENNESSEE. *Memphis.*—Memphis Stenographers' Association; organized January 26, 1891; meetings held over Baldwin's Music Hall; membership, 40. President, J. J. McNavin; vice-president, W. S. Salt; secretary, L. W. Bowker; treasurer, Miss Floy Davidson.

SHORTHAND MAGAZINES.

The following journals devoted to shorthand writing are now issued monthly (except where otherwise specified) in the United States:*

Browne's Phonographic Weekly. Conducted by D. L. Scott-Browne, New York. Publication begun in 1875. $1 per annum.

Frank Harrison's Shorthand Magazine. Published by Frank Harrison, Boston, Mass. Publication begun in 1889. 50 cents per annum.

Munson's Phonographic News and Teacher. C. A. Walworth, publisher, 108 E. One hundred and twenty-fifth street, New York. Publication begun in 1876. $2 per annum.

The National Stenographer. Isaac S. Dement, editor, Chicago, Ill. Publication begun in 1890. $1 per annum.

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* At the time of publication (April, 1893), the following additional journals are issued:

Barnes's Shorthand and Typewriting Magazine. Published monthly by A. J. Barnes, St. Louis, Mo. Publication revived, after an interval of suspension, in July, 1892. 50 cents per annum.

Dictation. Published monthly by Isaac S. Dement, 323 Dearborn street, Chicago, Ill. Publication begun in January, 1893. 50 cents per annum.

Frank Harrison's Shorthand Weekly. Published by Frank Harrison, Boston, Mass. Publication begun in January, 1892. $1 per annum.

The Exponent. Edited and published monthly by J. G. Cross, Chicago, Ill. This publication was discontinued for nearly three years and revived in September, 1892. $1.50 per annum.

Gokey's Shorthand Magazine. Edited and published quarterly by Charles F. Gokey, Paterson, N. J. Publication begun in January, 1892. 50 cents per annum.

Pacific Stenographer. Edited and published monthly by Clarence S. Merrill, San Francisco, Cal. Publication begun in January, 1893. 50 cents per annum.

The Phonographic Library. Published monthly by the Phonographic Institute Company, Cincinnati, Ohio. Publication begun in April, 1892. $1 per annum.

The Stenographic World. Chicago, Ill. Monthly. Publication begun in August, 1892. 50 cents per annum.

The Shorthand World. Edited by R. A. Smith, Omaha, Nebr. Publication (monthly) begun in September, 1892. 50 cents per annum.

The following changes have been made:

Munson's Phonographic News and Teacher is now edited by George Shankland Walworth.

The Phonographic Magazine is now issued semimonthly by the Phonographic Institute Company at $1 per annum.

Pernin's Monthly Stenographer. Edited by Mrs. Helen M. Pernin, Detroit, Mich. $1 per annum.

The Phonographic Magazine. Jerome B. Howard, editor. The Phonographic Institute, Cincinnati, Ohio. Publication begun January 1, 1887. $1.50 per annum.

The Phonographic World. Edited by E. N. Miner, 70 Broadway, New York. Publication begun in 1885. $1 per annum.

The Ready Writer.* A. L. Thompson and C. W. Dearborn, editors. Published by the Ready Writer Company, San Francisco, Cal. Publication begun June, 1891.

The Shorthand Review. Published by the Shorthand Review Company, 42 Tribune Building, New York, and 415–417 Dearborn street, Chicago. Publication begun January, 1889. 50 cents per annum.

The Short-Hand Writer.* D. P. Lindsley, publisher, 29 Park Row, New York. Bimonthly. 75 cents per annum.

The Southern Shorthand Reporter.* Published by E. L. Craigmiles, Chattanooga, Tenn. 50 cents per annum.

The Stenographer. Edited by Francis H. Hemperley. Published by The Stenographer Publishing Company, Philadelphia, Pa. Publication begun as The Philadelphia Stenographer, May, 1890. $1 per annum.

The Students' Journal. Devoted to Graham's Standard Phonography. Edited and published by Andrew J. Graham, 744 Broadway, New York. Publication begun in 1872. $1 per annum.

* Defunct at the date of publication.

SHORTHAND ALPHABETS.

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATE.

alphabets appended the signs in every case possible lly traced from the treatises on the several systems. s it has been necessary to depend upon the histories of an, published in 1816 and 1847, respectively. The es no account of the signs for ch, sh, and th, but it is ese were represented in nearly all methods.

t always arranged in the chronological order of the ach author, but represents the signs as modified in idely known editions. Where characters are reversed middle or end of words the second sign is given in

marks employed in representing the phonetic systems Webster. No mark is provided by him for the brief sound of *o* in whole, as used in the systems of Burnz Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, principles of pro-

KEY TO THE PRONUNCIATION.

a in mete. a in met.	ī, as in ice. ĭ as in it.	ō, as in hope. ŏ, as in hop. ōō, as in food. ŏŏ, as in foot. oi, as in oil. ou, as in out.	ū, as in use. ŭ, as in us.

ild; g, as in get; th, as in thing; th, as in thine; zh, as in azure.

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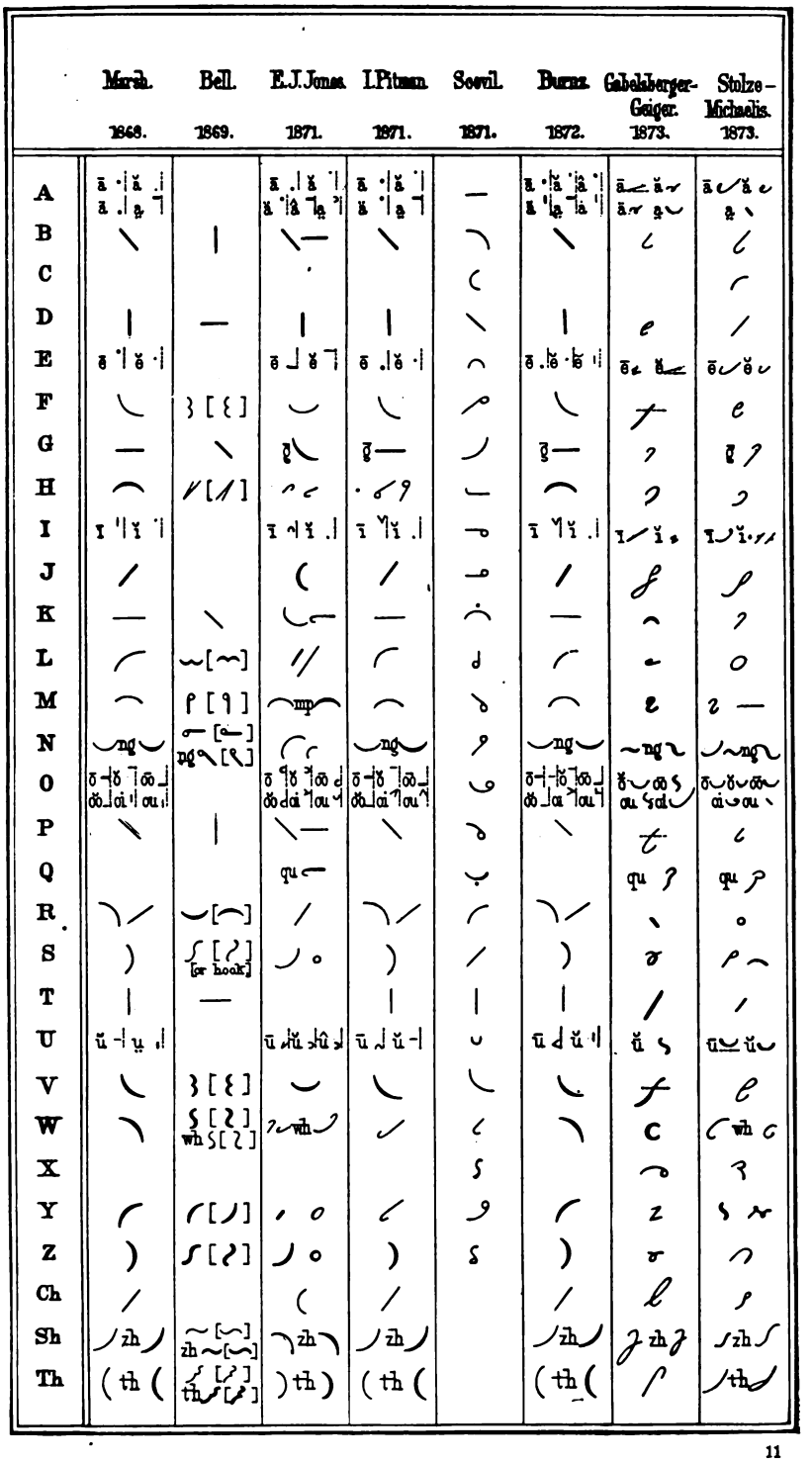
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BUREAU OF EDUCATION

Mar. 7 '46

CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 2, 1893

CONTRIBUTIONS TO AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

EDITED BY HERBERT B. ADAMS

No. 14

THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION

IN

CONNECTICUT

BY

BERNARD C. STEINER, A. M. (Yale)

INSTRUCTOR IN HISTORY AND PH. D., JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, LIBRARIAN OF THE ENOCH PRATT FREE LIBRARY OF BALTIMORE CITY

WASHINGTON

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

1893

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ILLUSTRATIONS.

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s: the Hartford Theological Seminary, in the city from which
nder Congregational influences; the other, the Berkeley Divin-
town, is an Episcopalian institution under the supervision of
Williams.

eries of monographs was undertaken and completed
on of the Hon. N. H. R. Dawson, my predecessor as
Education, and fully justifies the expectations which
ts usefulness.

tfully your obedient servant,

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

NOBLE,
the Interior, Washington, D. C.

THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN CONNECTICUT.

INTRODUCTION

The reputation of Connecticut in education is an enviable one. Founding one of the first public school systems in the world's history, before the stumps of trees had been cleared from the "home-lots" and the houses built to shelter the settlers, she has continued to be zealous in giving all of her children a common school education, till a man of Connecticut birth who can not read and write has long been hard to find.

Not content with this, in all considerable towns Connecticut has founded high schools and academies which are equal to any in the land and thoroughly prepare the students for life, or for further study in the colleges. A college was founded at the earliest possible moment and has grown to be one of the great centers of learning in the country. To this, in later years, she has added two more, and having been cautious in granting college charters, she enjoys the rare honor of being a State with no dead colleges, nor any living ones which are not of high rank.

Her children, imbibing at home these principles of universal education, have carried the same wherever they have gone over the Union and one of the most enlightened parts of the nearer West bears the name of "New Connecticut," thus commemorating the birthplace of its settlers.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION TILL THE UNION OF NEW HAVEN AND CONNECTICUT.

BEGINNING OF SCHOOLS.

The early history of the State is marked by a series of confederations, which, arising from one cause and another, compacted the separate individual settlements into one homogeneous body politic.

The three river towns formed Connecticut, to which Saybrook later joined itself. New Haven, Guilford, Milford, Stamford, and Southold formed the "New Haven jurisdiction," and finally were themselves added to Connecticut in the beginning of 1665.

The early settlers of these towns were of the best Puritan blood in England, coming here with a fixed purpose to erect commonwealths where God might be worshiped as they thought right. Many of them had been educated at the great English universities, and all of them were of more than average intelligence. Reverencing the Bible as the inspired word of God, and their guide even in the pettiest details of life, they could not but strive that their children might be able to read the precious book, and this was an additional reason for them to establish schools.

This they were not remiss in doing. New Haven took steps very early, since it was guided by the matchless intellects of John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton. These two extraordinary men, whose influence has been so deep and lasting, by making every freeman a voter and eligible to office, were in a manner forced to make education universal. To have a college in New Haven is said to have been part of Davenport's original plan for the colony, and toward that goal he pressed all his life, though the success of his enterprise did not come till years after his death.

More truly than any other one man may he be said to be the father of the idea which resulted in Yale University. But none realized better than this far-seeing, energetic man that a college could not come first; but a beginning must be made lower down with a grammar school. Therefore,[1] almost before the colonists were under shelter, only a little

[1] A school was probably established before they had been here for a year, since in 1639 the records read: "Thomas Fugill is required by the Court to keep Charles Higinson, an indentured apprentice, at school one year, or else advantage him as much in his education as one year's schooling comes to."—N. H. Rec., I, —; Connecticut Civil Polity and Schools.—American Journal of Education, XXVIII, 163.

rom the time they first cast anchor in the harbor of
general court, on Christmas day, 1641, voted "thatt a
up in this towne and our pastor Mr. Davenport, to-
agistrates, shall consider whatt yearly allowance is
o itt out of the comon stock of the towne, and allso
ders are meet to be observed in and about the same."[1]
this early record of a Connecticut school, the super-
gyman which has continued until the present; caus-
clergymen in a village to be chosen school visitors.
Ir. Ezekiel Cheever[2] was the first teacher, getting at
ree years, £20 annually, which in August, 1644, was
The vote enlarging his salary, in its preamble, gives
t they intended the school to accomplish. It was to
trayning upp of youth in this towne, that, through
y may be fitted for publique service hereafter, either
nonweale."[3]
52:

quainted the court that he heard the schoole master is
d, because he hath so many English scholars, which he must
was never the town's mind and it was now ordered that the
end back such scholars, as he seees doth not answer the first
and the parents of such children were desired not to send them.

rly that the New Haven free school was meant to be,
rototype, a Latin school.[4]
the jurisdiction followed New Haven's example.
chool as early as 1646, with tuition at the rate of 4
r, and Rev. John Higginson as teacher,[5] and in 1657
Milford hath made provision in a comfortable way."[6]
s even earlier than her sister colony.[7] In 1642, the
l appropriated "thirty pounds a year to the town
pril, 1643, Mr. Andrews was hired to teach for a year
l £16 therefor. At this school the charges for tuition
year, and for short periods sixpence per week.[9] In
for better conveniency than hitherto hath been at-

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r. Cheever desired £4:3:6 out of the estate of Mr. Trobridge, "wch
eaching of children." He wrote his famous Latin Accidence at
t edition of this book was issued in 1833.—American Journal of

of Education, XXVIII, 275.
tober 7, 1646.

igginson, himself a pupil in the Leicester Grammar School,
artford in 1639. Trumbull's Hartford Co. Book, I, pp. 629–630.
1, 564. In 1642, among the town's goods we find "2 large guns
er things belonging to the town, in the school-house."—Ameri-
tion, XXVIII, 185.
l., p. 45. Those not able to pay were to be supported at town
urnal of Education, XXVIII, 185.

tained for the keeping of a school," "which is looked upon as conducing much to the good of the present age and that of the future," a school-house is to be built at Hartford, and is not to "be devoted to any other use or employment."[1]

Windsor, another of the river towns, had a school as early as 1656, and it may be safely assumed that none of the original settlements failed to establish a school within twenty years of its founding. Still the death of Hooker and Haynes, and the removal of Goodwin, Russell, and Ludlow, prevented Connecticut from having as good an educational system as New Haven.

EARLY LAWS.

The Connecticut code of 1650 has rigid rules in reference to education, which are of great interest. The law recites that—

> Forasmuch as the good Education of Children is of singular behoofe and benefitt to any Commonwealth, and, whereas many parents and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in that kinde;—It is therefore ordered by this Courte and Authority thereof, that the Select men of every Towne, in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over theire brethren and neighbours, to see first, that none of them shall suffer so much Barbarism in any of their familyes, as not to indeavor to teach by themselves or others, theire Children and Apprentices, so much Learning as may inable them perfectly to read the Inglish tounge, and knowledge of the Capitall Lawes, uppon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein; Also that all Masters of familyes doe, once a weeke at least, catechise theire children and servants in the grounds and principles of religion.[2]

Compulsory education has been hailed as a new thing; but these early fathers, in their devotion to education, framed as strict a law as any to-day. To them, religious education was as important as secular. Indeed they established schools to prevent that "one chiefe project of that old deluder, Sathan, to keepe men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, * * * and that Learning may not bee buried in the Grave of our Forefathers in Church and Commonwealth, the Lord assisting our indeavors," they command that every township of fifty householders shall have a teacher of reading and writing, to be paid by the parents of the scholars. Furthermore, when there shall be one hundred householders, "they shall sett up a Grammer School, the masters thereof being able to instruct youths, so farr as they may bee fitted for the University." To enforce this, the town not obeying the act is to pay 5 pounds annually "to the next such Schoole."[3]

The New Haven code, printed in 1656, contained provisions not less stringent. It ordered—

> That all parents and Masters doe duly endeavor, either by their own ability and labour, or by improving such Schoolmaster, or other helps and means, as the Plantation doth afford, or the family may conveniently provide, that all their Children and Apprentices, as they grow capable, may through God's blessing, attain

[1] American Journal of Education, XXVIII, 185.

[2] Conn. Rec., II, 520. Copied from the Mass. Code of 1645.

[3] Conn. Rec., I, 555.

Davenport, was even more zealous than her elder sister. 1644, the proposition "for the reliefe of poore schollars e at Cambridg was fully approved off," and two men d to receive of everyone "whose hart is willing to con- nto."[1] The purpose was stated to be "that children (to soever they belong) being fit for learning, but their par- to beare the whole chardge, might the better be trayned que service."[2] This first collection amounted to 40 bushels In later years the interest fell off, and in 1647 the governor nt, "considering the worke is a service to Christ, to bring nts for his service, and besides, it wilbe a reproach that d Newhaven is falne off from this service."[4] A single ad- ems to have been insufficient, and three others were given.[5] plantation at Guilford, on December 17, 1645, men were ap- receive the college corn. This appointment was repeated l years, and doubtless was made in other towns.

ATTEMPTS FOR A COLLEGE IN NEW HAVEN.

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> de many attempts all along, from the first to the last of their being a dis- y, even such as were above their strength to promote learning by public Yea it was in their hearts to set up a college and there were sundry pro- ade and some land laid up in order thereto, in which desires, though they failed, yet there is an honorable testimony of their good will to learning al education of youth and may have its acceptance, in proportion with desiring to build a temple, though it was effected by his son.

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> matter about a Colledge at New Haven was thought to be too great a charge for of this jurisdiction to undergoe alone; especially considering the unsettled state New Haven Towne, being publiquely declared from the deliberate judgment of the most understanding men to be a place of no comfortable subsistence for ye present inhabitants there. But if Connecticut do joyne, the planters are generally willing to bear their just proportion for erecting and maintaining a Colledge there, however they desire thanks to Mr. Goodyear for his kind proffer to the setting forward of such work.

Mr. Goodyear was deputy governor of the Colony, and generously offered his own house, though he had been a great sufferer from the financial reverses in the Delaware land troubles and the loss of the

[1] N. H. Rec., I, 149.
[2] N. H. Rec., I, 210.
[3] N. H. Rec., I, 225.
[4] N. H. Rec., I, 311.
[5] N. H. Rec., I, 318, 354, 357.
[6] Hutchinson, History of N. E., I, 324.
[7] N. H. Rec., I, 376.

to be able duly to read the Scriptures, and other good and
oks in the English tongue, being their native language, and in
ure, to understand the main grounds and principles of Christian
salvation. And to give a due Answer to such plain and ordi-
y by the Deputies, Officers, or others be propounded concern-

r, "it was propounded that the Court would think of
er the setting up of schools," and the court ordered
ntation, where a schoole is not allready set up and
with indeavors shall be used that a schoolemaster be
y attend that worke." The salary of such teacher
e-third by the town and two-thirds from tuition fees.[2]
ement was added "that the sonnes of all the inhab-
jurisdiction shall be learned to write a ledgible hand,
re capable of it."[3]
e, the energy and devotion of these people toward
n by another law. This provides "for encouragment
dilligently & constantly (to the satisfaction of the
n each plantation) apply themselves to due use of
inmt of learning, wch may fitt them for publick serv-
ll be freed from payment of rates with respect to
ut if they stop studying, they are to pay taxes again.[3]

COLLEGE CORN.

people of Connecticut and New Haven provide for
eir own children at home, but they generously aided
the struggling college which Massachusetts had just
ge, giving up all hopes of founding one themselves in
ne.
op tells us—

astor of the church in Cambridge, being at Connecticut when
t there for the United (New England) Colonies, moved them
of help towards the maintenance of poor scholars in the col-
mmissioners ordered that it should be commanded to the depu-
eral Courts and the elders within the several colonies to raise
y contribution one peck of corn, or twelve pence money, or
very family, which those of Connecticut presently performed.[4]

n a month from the recommendation, Connecticut
o be appointed in every town to receive the contribu-
o be brought in during March each year.[5] In April,
e recommended "seasonably to attend to the collec-
g."[6] More than this, in 1653 the colony voted £20
Harvard College,[7] and incorporated its first enact-
ontribution in its permanent code.[8] New Haven,

583.
219.
376.
tory of N. E., II (211), 263.

[2] Conn. Rec., I, 112.
[4] Conn. Rec., I, 139.
[7] Conn. Rec., I, 250.
[8] Conn. Rec., I, 555.

spurred on by Davenport, was even more zealous than her elder sister. In November, 1644, the proposition "for the reliefe of poore schollars att the colledge at Cambridg was fully approved off," and two men were appointed to receive of everyone "whose hart is willing to contribute thereunto."[1] The purpose was stated to be "that children (to what collony soever they belong) being fit for learning, but their parents not able to beare the whole chardge, might the better be trayned upp for publique service."[2] This first collection amounted to 40 bushels of wheat.[3] In later years the interest fell off, and in 1647 the governor urged payment, "considering the worke is a service to Christ, to bring up yonge plants for his service, and besides, it wilbe a reproach that it shalbe said Newhaven is falne off from this service."[4] A single admonition seems to have been insufficient, and three others were given.[5]

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Hutchinson's History says of the settlers of New Haven:[6]

> They made many attempts all along, from the first to the last of their being a distinct colony, even such as were above their strength to promote learning by public schools. Yea it was in their hearts to set up a college and there were sundry provisions made and some land laid up in order thereto, in which desires, though they in issue failed, yet there is an honorable testimony of their good will to learning and liberal education of youth and may have its acceptance, in proportion with David desiring to build a temple, though it was effected by his son.

Truly, a college was the desire of Davenport's heart. In 1647, the committee on the distribution of home lots were desired to "consider and reserve what lot they shall see neat and most commodious for a college, which they desire may be set up as soon as their ability will reach unto."[7] In 1652, some attempt must have been made in this direction, for on the records of Guilford we find the entry that—

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[1] N. H. Rec., I, 149.
[2] N. H. Rec., I, 210.
[3] N. H. Rec., I, 225.
[4] N. H. Rec., I, 311.
[5] N. H. Rec., I, 318, 354, 357.
[6] Hutchinson, History of N. E., I, 324.
[7] N. H. Rec., I, 376.

In 1654 (as Connecticut apparently would not "joyne," ept till then), at a town meeting in New Haven, it l to know the town's mind" on the setting up of a n objected, but all seemed willing, provided that ey can raise here will doe it."[2] A year later, the Col- er up and the governor informed the general court "in a free way of contribution," had raised £300 and her towns would do. Milford promised £100; the other prepared and desired time to consult. Accordingly was appointed, of which there is no record.[2] A few ew Haven town meeting, the subject had been again ince "in some respects this seemes to be a season of being at present at the colledg in ye Bay concerning President Dunster; it is now intended to be pro- n. court concerning a College; therefore this towne t they will do by way of incouragmt for ye same, ell, if they herein give a good example to ye other diction, being free in so good a worke."

and Mr. Hook (his assistant) were both present upon "spake much to incourag the worke," and a com- to the severall planters in this towne and take from vill freely give to this worke."[2] But nothing seems is.

July, 1655, "The Governor informed the Town (New meeting had not been called, but for furtherance of —a business of much concernment for the good of nounced the other towns had raised £240, which ught would provide a house. "Now there wants an the President, &c." He suggested New Haven might ying the £300 they had subscribed, in yearly install- if the Town will, they may order to pay £60 a year reasury." This last was agreed to.[3]

termined to attempt a college "for the education of rature, to fitt them for publick services in church and the indefatigable Davenport wrote to Edward Hop- kins, a son-in-law of Eaton and one of the first set- ven, becoming dissatisfied for some reason, went to chosen governor of Connecticut, in alternate years l. Then returning to England for a visit, he was of the fleet prison by Cromwell and so did not return. commissioner of the admiralty and member of Parlia-

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Coll., ii. 172.

Coll., iii. 2

two hundredth anniversary of school, by L. W. Bacon, p. 46.

ment and died in 1657. On the receipt of Davenport's letter, he wrote an answer, April 30, 1656, in which he said:

That which the Lord hath given mee in those parts, I ever designed the greatest part of it for the furtherance of the worke of Christ in those ends of the earth; and, if I understand that a colledge is begun and like to be carried on at Newhaven for the good of posterity, I shall give some encouragmt thereunto.

Davenport wrote again, but before he could get an answer Hopkins died. In his will he left all his American estate, after paying some legacies, to Governor Eaton, Rev. Mr. Davenport, and two others of Hartford as trustees.[1] Eaton having died the other trustees met and appraised the estate and decided that as the trustees were chosen, two from New Haven and two from Hartford, it would be most proper to divide the money, which amounted to £1,324, between the two places. This they did, giving also £100 to Harvard and a part of the estate to Hadley, "that new plantation unto which sundry of Hartford were to remove and were now gone."[2]

The share allotted to Hartford was £400 and that to New Haven £412.[3] In 1660, Davenport handed over the trust to the general court of New Haven, making a long and clear statement of the history of the fund and the conditions that were attached to it. This part of the estate was "for promoveing the colledg-worke in a graduall way, for the education of youth in good literature."

The conditions he required were—

That the rent of the Oystershell-field, formerly seperated & reserved for ye use & benifit of a colledge, be paid from this time forward towards the makeing of some stocke for disbursment of necessary charges towards ye colledg; that, if no place can be found more convenient, Mr. Eldredd's lot be given for the use of the colledg and of ye colony grammer schoole, if it be in this towne; that parents will keepe such of their sonns constantly to learning in the schooles, whom they intend to traine up for publick serviceableness, & that all their sonnes may learn at the least to write and cast up accounts competently & may make some entrance into ye Lattine tongue.

Also that, if the colony settle £40 per annum on the school and give £100 for a school house and library, the town, being free from expense for a school, "would give something to the college." So much for the town; from the colony he required that the £40 per annum, formerly granted for a grammar school, be paid, and the school "settled in one of the plantations, and that a schoolmaster may forthwith be provided to teach the three languages, Lattine, Greeke, & Hebrew, soe far as shall be necessary to prepare them for the colledge." Also that, if the school be put at New Haven, the governor, magistrates, elders, and deputies should visit it yearly "to examine ye schollers pfficiency in learning;" that the court should examine the accounts yearly; that a committee of church members be chosen "to consult and advise in emergent,

[1] On New Haven town records July 1, 1658, we find noted a legacy of "books intended for the use of a college," in Governor Eaton's will. Two hundredth anniversary, Hopkins Grammar School, L. W. Bacon, p. 46.

[2] N. H. Rec., II, 370.

[3] Hollister, History of Conn., II, 569.

at may concerne ye schoole or colledge, and that e end that he may ye better performe his trust) in colledge be always consulted in difficult cases, and a negative vote."[1] This the "generall court tooke accepted the trust;[2] but the movement for a college ne to naught in the troublous times which preceded nnecticut.

LONY GRAMMAR SCHOOL AT NEW HAVEN.

toward establishing any thing higher than the free ven was in 1659, when £40 a year was voted for a chool, "for the use of the inhabitants of this jurisdic- for procuring books, approved by Rev. Messrs. Daven- from Mr. Blinman." The governor, deputy governor, ministers were given full power in the matter."[3] neeting, Deputy Governor Leete and the Guilford he house formerly belonging to Mr. Whitefield, their chool, and asked if the school was put elsewhere that hould furnish an equivalent. For a year, however, have been done, till Davenport, at a court of magis- he papers, which were later read in general court and eady discussed. After the general court heard these,[5] sible of the small progresse or pfficiency in learning accomplished and of the great difficulty and charge for the maintaining children at ye schooles or colledg anted, besides the £40 per annum, £100 additional. to have the first choice as to whether it wishes the ord, and then Guilford, and so in order, "yet it is ll that New Haven would accept the business; but ixed to New Haven (if the Lord shall succeed that At the very beginning of the school came the diffi- ecticut, and in June, 1662, "at a Meeting of ye Comit- Schoole," the question was discussed of discontinuing ing; "not sufficient grounds of discouragement at lay it downe, did leave it to go on for further tryall." 662, Mr. Davenport further propounded to[3] "ye Towne ye Colony Schoole and informed them that the Com- ole made it a great objection against the keeping of wne did now send scholars only five or six; therefore, have ye benefit taken away, you should send your tantly and not take them off soe often; and, further,

[1] N. H. Rec., II, 356.
[2] N. H. Rec., II, 374.
[3] N. H. Rec., II, 158.
[4] American Journal of Education, XXVIII, 275–304.

nade. It was built
oldest dwelling in

said that he was in the schoole and it grieved him to see how few schollars were there."

In November, the question of continuing the school came up again, and it was decided "that, considering ye distraction of ye time, that ye end is not attained for which it was settled, noe way proportionable to ye charges expended" and so the school was closed, though New Haven professed readiness "to provide schoole house & house for schoole master, if need require." Jeremiah Peck was then the teacher; his salary is not stated.

NOTE.—In connection with the beginnings of education in New Haven Colony it is interesting to notice that the first book written and published by a native of Connecticut was "The Accidence in Questions and Answers," London, 1683, by Rev. Samuel Hoadley; born at Guilford, September 30, 1643. This school book went through a number of editions.

CHAPTER II.

IN THE COLONY OF CONNECTICUT TO 1776.

TIES IN OBTAINING THE HOPKINS BEQUEST.

64 and beginning of the next year, New Haven Col-
fight for separate existence which had been hopeless
Winthrop obtained a charter for Connecticut, compris-
s the territory of New Haven. The bitterness of de-
ble to some of the colonists, and they went to settle in
rest, led by the sagacious William Leete, stayed and
table. Only a few months before the loss of separate
er education came again to New Haven. Though Dav-
, handed over his trust to the town, yet the money and
's bequest were not so easily to come into its posses-
the inhabitants of Hartford, becoming dissatisfied,
l one of their leaders was William Goodwin, one of the
Seemingly actuated by a fear that the trustees
money between New Haven and Hadley and leave
Colony of Connecticut placed a restriction on the
gacy for over five years,[1] ordering that the estate "be
is Collony, until the sd estate be inventoried and
anted by this court,"[2] and that rent in some cases
the treasurer, till called for by the general court.[3]
ittee was appointed to treat with the trustees, which
representative wrote from Hadley declining to meet,
on to do so, for they had offered £350 to Hartford, pro-
ould improve it "according to ye mind of ye donor
" and that the "Court do also engage to remove all
f our way in ye management of ye rest of ye estate
rust." If these conditions should be rejected, "then
our grante to them heer inserted to be a nullyty &
ing was done then. On October 8, 1663, the general
another committee "to consider what is meet to be
ce to Mr. Hopkins estate, by him bequeathed for to be
romoting of learning."[5] The result of this was another
odwin, on February 1, 1664, in which he renews the

322, 338, 341, 350, 374.
345.
370.

[4] Conn. Rec., I, 578.
[5] Conn. Rec., I, 412.

offer of £350, if the estate be given over to the trustees by the end of March; otherwise "this tendery also is to be judged a nullity and we shall forthwith endeavor the freeing of the estate elsewhere, as the great betrustment committed to us in duty bindeth us to doe thus."[1] This was probably a threat of an appeal to the English chancery courts and induced the court, on March 10, to "see cause to take of the sequestration formerly laid upon the estate of Edward Hopkins."[2]

In April, 1664, at a town meeting in New Haven, Mr. Davenport appeared, and after stating the grievous detention of the bequest by Connecticut, said "not till this spring it is free." He then made new arrangements for the school, and the town appropriated £30 yearly to it.[3] A little later, in June, the two surviving trustees made the disposition of it previously referred to,[4] reserving for themselves a negative voice through their lives. Thus, at the end of New Haven's independent existence began anew her grammar school.

THE HOPKINS GRAMMAR SCHOOLS AT NEW HAVEN AND HARTFORD.

In 1663, George Pardee became first principal of the school at New Haven.[5] He was not a person of great learning. "The Deputy Governor informed the Towne, concerning ye necessity of having a schoolemaster for the teaching of children, and sayd he had spoken with Mr. Davenport & they knew none so fit for it, as George Pardee." He, however, was modest, and felt that "he had lost much of what learning he formerly had attained; but, if he had a competent maintenance allowed him for his family, he wd. give himself & time wholly to ye worke, for ye regaining what he had lost; but if that could not be, he must take all opportunities, evenings and mornings, in other ways for the supplying of his family." However, he was selected for the office and "advised to be careful to instruct the youth in point of manners there being a gt. fault in that respect, as some expressed."[6] The school did not satisfy Davenport, and on February 7, 1667, he "came into town meeting & desired to speak something concerning the school, & first propounded to the town whether they would send their children to the school to be taught, for the fitting them for the service of God in church and commonwealth. If they would, then he said, that the grant of that part of Mr. Hopkins his estate formerly made to this town stands good; but, if not, it is void, because it attains not the end of the donor. But, if New Haven will neglect

[1] Conn. Rec., I, 579.

[2] Conn. Rec., I, 418

[3] Levermore's Rep. of N. H., p. 162.

[4] Hopkins left also £500 of his English estate "for upholding & promoting kingdom of the Lord in those parts of the earth." This was given to Harv rather strangely, by chancery in 1710.

[5] American Journal of Education, XXVIII, 275–304.

[6] ...ical discourse at Two Hundredth Anniversary of New Haven (J. L. I

erein, he must improve it there whereunto that end it
vill of the dead."

them to buy a farm.[1]

port's removal to Boston he made a grant to the
the Grammar schoole or Colledge att Newhaven,
and begun, may be provided for, maintained, & con-
couragement & bringing up of hopefull youths in the
er good Literature for the publique use & service of
These trustees are to "order, regulate, & direct the
chool, to make choice of such schoolmaster (& usher
hey shall approve of, to be sufficiently qualified to
charge & able to instruct & teach the three learned
n, Greek, and Hebrew, so far as shall be necessary to
th for the College."

rules was issued by the trustees, interesting as show-
iscipline of the time. Tuition was to be free for all
County, and boys from elsewhere paid a 10-shillings
mong the rules were these:

admitted into ye sd Schoole for ye learning of English Books,
n before taught to spell ye letters well & begin to read, thereby
ght Spelling & Reading, or to learne to write & Cypher for
tion & noe further, & yt all others, either too young & not
and spelling & all Girles be excluded, as Improper & inconsistent
r Schoole, as ye law injoines & is ye Designe of this Sottlemt.

Houres" are from "6 in ye morning to 11 a clock in ye
om 1 a clock in the afternoon to 5 a clock in the after-
& 4 in Winter."

:

behave themselvs at all tymes, especially in School tyme, with
ire Master & with Sobriety & quietnes among themselvs, with-
ling, or calling one another or any others bad names, or using
ng, or taking the name of God in vaine, or other prophane,
speeches, which, if any doe, that ye Mr. forth with give the due
all Correccions be with Moderacion.

holars & all other of ye Boyes of Competent age & Capacity
mpt of one passage or sentence at least of ye sermons the fore-
ye 2d day morning. And that from 1 to 3 in ye afternoone of
week be Improved by ye Mr. in Catchizing of his Schollars yt.

rt's departure, New Haven's zeal fell off, and in 1675
Jones roundly scolded the town for letting the school
emouth. The next year he summoned the town to
nty court for not keeping a grammar school, and, in
them again, for not having had school for three years.
l revived under his earnest endeavors and continued
eful existence throughout this period, fitting youths

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l of Education, XXVIII, 275–304; Hopkins's Bequest at New

for Harvard and later for Yale. In 1728 the town again settled the oyster-shell field on the school, to aid scholars of Congregational parentage.[1] In 1688 the town formally turned over the school to a body of seven trustees.

Hartford appointed a committee to receive money "to be employed in this town for promoting of learning here," a seeming narrowing of the terms of Hopkins's generous bequest.[2] This was not the only gift for a school at that place. William Gibbons, by his will of February 26, 1655,[3] made the first legacy for education in the State, giving thirty acres of upland and meadow in Wethersfield "towards the mantenance of a lattin school at Hartford." This land still belongs to the school, though let out at long lease by the town in 1756. John Talcott also, when he died in 1660, left something for the same purpose.[4] The school did not prove as satisfactory as it should have been, and gradually ran down,[5] till 1764, when a select school was begun by thirty families, which continued two years, till the house built for it was destroyed, ten or twelve persons perishing in it. An attempt to elevate the old grammar school itself in 1765 was also a failure,[6] so that at the close of the Colonial Period, it was little more than a "town school."

COUNTY LATIN SCHOOLS.

In May, 1672, the general court granted to the county towns of each of the four counties in the State 600 acres of land, "to be taken up where it may not prejudice any former grant," to belong to them for-

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[1]Levermore Rep. of N. H., p. 164.

[2]Barnard's Hist. of Ed. in Conn.; American Journal of Education, IV, 657.

[3]His words are, "I give my land at Peniwise, now in the tenor of John Sadler, towards the mayntenance of a Lattin schoole at Hartford; provided that the fence be continued in the same line and way of common fencing as that now is and, for the present, until the lease I have made to John Sadler be expired, I give out of the rent due from John Sadler 50 shillings yearly." Am. J. of Ed., XXII, 370.

[4]Conn. Rec., IV, 31.

His will is dated August 12, 1659, and says, "I give toward the maintaining a Lattin Schoole at Hartford, if any be kept there, £5."

James Richards, esq., who married Sarah, daughter of William Gibbons, left £50 to the Hartford Latin School.

American Journal of Education, XXII, 370.

[5]American Journal of Education, XXVIII, 185.

On September 18, 1753, at Hartford town meeting, it was "voted and agreed that the incomes or rents of the lands (leased for 900 years) and interest of the moneys belonging to the Free School (so-called) in this town shall be applied to the use and support of a Grammar School to be kept in the town of Hartford."

[6]On December 30, 1765, "the inhabitants of this town (Hartford) taking into consideration the declining state of the Grammar School, and sensible that the interests and moneys belonging to it may yet be improved to better advantage, to encourage and answer the ends proposed by the donors of such interests," appoint a committee to hire a schoolmaster, lay down rules, and administer the finances. Am. J. of Ed. XXVIII, 185. "Hopkins Bequest at Hartford."

nefitt of a grammer schoole."[1] In the revised code,[2] ap-
the requirement of a grammar school is changed from
hundred families to the county towns.[3] But this land
it for some time, and in 1702 committees were ap-
purpose.[4] To aid in the support of these schools the
7, gave the fines which towns incurred for not keeping
ed time (three months a year) to "the Lattin schoole"
The same session (May, 1677) a penalty of £10 a
county towns not maintaining such a school.[6] The
ing such schools was steadily kept up; in 1687 a sur-
y treasury was ordered to be divided among the gram-
if a county had none, its share was divided among
Four years after, "considering the necessity and great
d literature," two free schools are appointed to be in
w Haven.[8] The masters for these were to be chosen
tes and ministers of the county and to receive £60.
hich seem to have been intended to be of higher grade
ammar schools, were to teach children, "after they can
alter, reading, writeing, and arithmetick, the Lattin
es."

, 1691, Mr. John Burr introduced a bill that the appro-
o each of the above-mentioned two schools should be
schools at Fairfield and New London should partici-
priation, and consequently each of the four should re-
his was not approved of and the old law stood[9] for two
other two schools obtained £20 each, additional to the
Hartford and New Haven. The grammar schools at
Hartford we have already discussed.

NEW LONDON GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

fter the law concerning grammar schools was passed,
a lonely man," living in New London, died, leaving, by a
his estate to the town "to be improved for the educa-
The property thus given, which the town decided

76.
Reprint 1855. Re-enacted October, 1700. Conn. Rec., IV, 331.
ools were considered to fill the requirements.
102. Hartford's land was laid out 1718 and sold in 1776. Am.

7.
12.
24.
1.
0, 97.
ondon, pp. 396-401. We find other bequests for schools from time
le. John Oates, coming from England to Windham, at his death
s for a school there. (Trumbull, I, 308.)

should be used for poor children, was a farm of 25 acres north of the town, various divisions of outlands, and the rights of an original proprietor in the commons. For many years nothing was done with the bequest, till in 1701 the town voted to establish a grammar school,[1] to employ the State allowance and the income of the Bartlet estate for it, and that parents of scholars should make up any deficiency. In 1713 the general assembly granted the town permission to sell the Bartlet lands, which was done, the farm itself bringing £300. This was only one instance of the policy of killing the goose which laid the golden eggs. We find far too many such instances, for the lands, if they had been retained a century, would have been worth vastly more. The same year a schoolhouse was built to which girls were admitted for an hour at a time on certain days of the week. In 1721, an agitation was begun in favor of selling the 600 acres given by the State and dividing the receipts between the grammar school and the schools in the north part of the town. This was accomplished in 1725 and a few years later the Bartlet fund was united to the fund procured from the sale of the land.[2] From the gift of Robert Bartlet the school was called the Bartlet School, in memory of the generous donor. The school continued a useful existence through the colonial period. In 1752, the general assembly granted permission for the remaining school land to be sold and the proceeds put at interest.[3]

FAIRFIELD GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

Of this little is known.[4] In 1752 the town petitioned the general court that "the school which time out of mind among us has been called the Grammar School" has such small means of support as to induce them to ask for advice and encouragement. The appropriation of excise money raised in the county for the privilege of retailing strong liquors was recommended, but this was not adopted, and it is to be feared the school died.

COMMON OR TOWN SCHOOLS.

The State relaxed not one whit of its vigilance for universal education.[5] In 1677, we have already seen, the towns remiss in keeping up their schools for three months were ordered to pay a fine of £5, and at

[1] This was probably a revival of an earlier school, for the general court appointed a committee to lay out land for the New London grammar school in 1679. (Conn. Rec., III, 29.)

[2] Conn. Rec., VII, 468.

[3] Conn. Rec., X, 129.

[4] Barnard's Hist. of Ed. in Conn. In 1678, the general court recommended "the court of Fairfield to improve so much of their county revenue as they can spare for the settlement and incouragment of a grammer schoole." (Conn. Rec., III, 8.) See p. 48.

[5] In 1670 the governor reported that one-fourth of the annual revenue "is laid out in maintaining free schools for the education of our children." (Am. J. of Ed., I, 297-312.)

of the assembly authority was given the towns to tax upport of schools.[1] A year later the number of families s to contain in order to be compelled to maintain a ed from 50 to 30.[2]

ourage gifts for learning, the houses and lands given es were freed from taxes.[3] Town schools were found gave the rudiments of education. The duties of the instruct all sorts and that from their A B C, and to aching when required." In smaller towns a school arger, a college student or a recent graduate, generally he prefix *Sir*.

of over seventy families were ordered to keep a school those of any number of families under seventy, to have he year. In these schools reading and writing were to r their maintenance, a tax of 40 shillings in each £1,000 laid.[4] The minimum length of time to constitute a rding to law, had been increased from three to six s before.[5] There seems at first to have been some dif- ection of the tax granted for this purpose,[6] and, when l bills of credit in the exigencies of war in 1713, an act ing the town's share of the school money payable in the management of the schools had been in the hands t, as these were now being divided into parishes, the ols was put into the hands of these new divisions in Two years later, to insure supervision of the schools, d civil authority were appointed to visit the schools, ce in each quarter of the year,"[9] and to report any isapplication of the publick money." In 1717, the ties were empowered to lay taxes for the support of oose a collector.[10]

FIRST GRANT OF WESTERN LANDS.

e county of Litchfield, in the northwestern part of the l. In laying out towns in that county, the State fore- r policy, and made one of the earliest land grants. bill passed the general assembly setting aside seven unty, so that the "money that shall be given, by allowed to settle in said towns, for the land there,

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7, 312.

r., 1674.

4, 375; vi, 10.

[6] Conn. Rec., v, 213.

[7] Conn. Rec., v, 408.

[8] Conn. Rec., v, 353.

[9] Conn. Rec., v, 462.

[10] Conn. Rec., vi, 34.

459; cf., viii, 122. Where the towns are allowed to have the r paying the minister instead of keeping school. Enacted in viii, 344.

shall be improved for the support of the schools (viz,) those schools that ought to be kept in those towns that are now settled." These western towns were Norfolk, Kent, Goshen, Canaan, Cornwall, Salisbury, and Sharon.[1] The price paid for most of the towns is unknown. Norfolk, which was not disposed of till 1762,[2] brought £6,824.10, and Kent £1,225.19. When arrangements were made for selling some of these towns in 1737, it is interesting to note that one fifty-third of each town was reserved for school land.[3] In 1741, the bonds and money which had been received from the sale of these towns up to that date were ordered to be distributed to the several ecclesiastical societies in trust, for the use of their schools.[4]

FURTHER COLONIAL SCHOOL HISTORY.

In the records, we find here and there further instances of the colony's care for schools. The assembly appoints a committee to take charge of lands given for a school at Middletown; gives land which had escheated to the State to a school at Wintonbury;[5] and exempts schoolmasters from military service. The tax of 40 shillings in £1,000 is diminished to 10 shillings in 1754;[6] under the pressure of the French and Indian war, raised again to 20 shillings in 1766;[7] and a year later, restored to the original figure.[8] In addition to this, the arrears of taxes on liquors, tea, etc., were directed to be sued for in 1766 and the proceeds given to the schools, which gift was made again eight years later.[9] In 1701 and later, through the whole colonial period, a helping hand was ever ready to assist Yale College, as will be seen further on.

Not only did the State encourage public schools, but it also discouraged "any other schools, which are not under its establishment and inspection."[10] A notable instance of this occurred in the middle of the last century. During the religious excitement then disturbing the country, the Separates, who had many adherents in New London, established an institution there, known as the "Shepherd's Tent," at the house of Samuel Harris.[11] This was intended as an academy "for educating young men to become exhorters, teachers and ministers." This met with the disapproval of the general assembly, and a law was passed forbidding anyone "to erect, establish, set up, keep, or maintain any college, seminary of learning, or any publick school whatsoever for the instruction of young persons, other than such as are erected and established, or allowed by the laws of this Colony, without special lycence,

[1] Barnard's Hist. of Ed. in Conn.
[2] Conn. Rec., XII, 80.
[3] Conn. Rec., VIII, 134.
[4] Conn. Rec., VIII, 387, 392.
[5] Conn. Rec., VII, 509; VIII, 379, 575.
[6] Conn. Rec., X, 317.
[7] Conn. Rec., XII, 497.
[8] Conn. Rec., XII, 561.
[9] Conn. Rec., VII, 463; XIV, 330.
[10] A good account of the schools of the period is found in Am. J. of Ed., XVII, 607; "Master Niles School at Stonington, Conn., 1764–1790."
[11] Caulkins's New London, 453.

d and obtained of this Assembly," under penalty of
oncerned.[1]

INDIAN EDUCATION.

ny did not only take care of its own citizens, but also
helping hand to promote "the glory of God and the
re of these poore, naked sonnes of Adam," the aborig-
of 1650 provided for their religious instruction,[2] and,
the court, lamenting that "little hath hitherto beene
n want of an able Interpreter," orders that Thomas
t shall send his son John to Hartford, "where this
ide for his maintenance & schooling, to the end hee
resent assistant," to elders and others, "to interpret
l to y^m as hee shall be directed." New Haven made no
Indian education, but Rev. Abraham Pierson, of
l the language and preached to Indians, and the Com-
e United Colonies granted money for their education

n, Stone, Newton, and Hooker taught an Indian school
7, and, from 1733 to 1736, we find record of such a
in. In 1671, Rev. James Fitch, pastor at Norwich,
Mohegans, and, in 1728, a grandson of Capt. John
em in English and the principles of religion, and the
gave him £15.[4]
a law was passed, ordering any masters or mistresses
h them to read English and also to instruct them in
the Christian faith, by catechising of them, "under
er 40 shillings, if neglected." This law remained on
s till 1821.[5]
islature made appropriations for "dieting" the Indians
nington.[6] Three years thereafter, a contribution for
lered to be taken in the churches at the next Thanks-
s appropriated for the education of the children of the
ans" in the town of Lyme. In their zeal to elevate
neral assembly, when one Atchetoset became a Chris-
education for himself and family, took care "that the
structed according to his desire, and that his chil-
and taught the principles of the Christian religion

1. 501.
265.
n., I. 495.
of Ed. in Conn.; Conn. Rec., VII, 181; again in 1729, VII, 242.
102.
471, 491, 509; VIII, 6.
I, 372.

For the repairing of the schoolhouse of the Mohegans, £12 was appropriated in 1742[1] and £4 11*s.* 7*d.* in 1774[2] and, at the latter time, £6 was allowed for a schoolmaster. But these efforts produced little results. In our own century, from 1827 to 1831, efforts were made by Miss Sarah L. Huntington, of Norwich, to raise up this tribe from their degradation, and after much effort she obtained a yearly appropriation for the support of a teacher and $500 for erecting buildings. This school had a good effect upon the tribe, both intellectually and morally, and was maintained many years.[3]

But the most celebrated enterprise for the education of the Indians in Connecticut was *Moor's Indian Charity School.* In 1735 Rev. Eleazar Wheelock was settled over the Second Church in Lebanon and, as many ministers did in those days, he took boys in his family for instruction. In December, 1743, a young Mohegan, Samson Occum, 20 years old, who had been converted in the "great awakening" three years before, applied to him for instruction. Mr. Wheelock took him and instructed him for three years. Occum later became a preacher and was very successful among his people. This led Mr. Wheelock to form the idea of an Indian school; as he judged, from his intercourse with Occum, that Indians would be much more successful than white men as missionaries to their race. It was a new idea, which not even the apostle Eliot had tried. In 1754 he began with two Delawares and others soon followed, till in 1762 he had over twenty scholars, of whom one was a Mohegan, six were Mohawks and most of the rest Delawares. To support these, gentlemen in Boston and elsewhere make contributions, the legislatures of Connecticut and Massachusetts made appropriations, and the Scotch Society for Propagating Christian Knowledge gave something. Four Indian girls had been received and were taught sewing and housewifery.

In 1763 Wheelock appealed to the legislature for aid and was given a recommendation to the churches to take up a collection therefor; but reminiscences of aboriginal atrocities were too fresh and but little was obtained. Three years afterwards the legislature, on another appeal, did the same thing, but the result is unknown.

Joshua Moor of Mansfield, dying in 1754, gave a house and two acres of land for the school in Lebanon and from him the school took its name.

In 1766 another attempt, and a very successful one, was made to obtain funds. Mr. Occum and Rev. Nathaniel Whitaker crossed the ocean to Great Britain and there made an appeal for the school. This was very successful; Occum, the first Indian preacher who had ever come over from America, preached in a year and half between three and four hundred sermons, and created a great sensation. Large con-

[1] Conn. Rec., VIII, 509.

[2] Conn. Rec., XIV, 246.

[3] Deforest's Indians in Connecticut, pp. 482–487.

nade; the King gave £200, Lord Dartmouth 50 guineas. re obtained in England and between £2,000 and £3,000 few years later, in 1770, Dr. Wheelock determined to to some newer part of the country, to increase its use- er, N. H., was the spot pitched upon and from the rang Dartmouth College.[1]

ACADEMIES.

d of the colonial period the private academies began e and there. Most of these were founded after the col- ate, but a tendency toward them was visible previous

nor Trumbull established an academy at Lebanon for scholars. Tuition for a Latin scholar was 35 shillings tenor; and for a reading scholar, 30 shillings. This rity second to hardly any other in New England. All ighters, too, of the governor went there and it became that pupils came from the West Indies, North and and Georgia, as well as from the northern colonies. thirty years by Nathan Tisdale, a Harvard graduate.[3] egislature incorporated 12 proprietors of the "Union London." It was intended "to furnish facilities for a education" and in classics to fit for college. In its a noted school, yielding a large income, and from its nt forth to the Continental army, Nathan Hale, the was in good repute for many years, but languished as improved and it finally died about 1850.[4]

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rom Deforest's Indians of Connecticut, pp. 453–459, and contri- siastical Hist. of Conn., pp. 148–149.

nd the Lebanon School, Am. Jour. of Ed., XXVIII, 792–797.

Trumbull, 59; Conn. Rec., XIV, 383.

London, 1822.

CHAPTER III.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF CONNECTICUT AS A STATE (1776 to 1890).

SCHOOL SOCIETIES.

For about twenty years after the Declaration of Independence there was no important change in the school laws of Connecticut.

In 1794, school districts (subdivisions of ecclesiastical societies) were allowed by a two-thirds vote, to lay a tax for a schoolhouse and locate it, and choose a collector of the tax.[1] But the acts of 1795 and 1798 revolutionized the whole system. By the former a committee of eight, with Governor Treadwell as chairman—

> Were authorized to sell all lands owned by the State west of Pennsylvania,[2] reserved in the cession to the United States in 1782 and the proceeds of the sale were to go to a perpetual fund, the interest of which was to be divided annually among the several societies constituted, or which might be constituted by law, within certain limits, and each society could, by a two-thirds vote, improve its proportion of the interest, for the support of the Christian ministry, or the public worship of God. All inhabitants who have right to vote in town meeting, are to meet in October annually, organize themselves into societies and transact any other business on the subject of schooling in general, and touching the monies hereby appropriated to their use.[1]

This, it will be seen created a "school society," separate and distinct from the old ecclesiastical society, and the management of the schools went to these new bodies, while the support of the schools was to come from a permanent fund. This system was different from that of the other New England States. In 1798 a second act perfected the new system and fully substituted it for the old. Each society was given power to appoint a suitable number of persons, not exceeding nine, of competent skill and letters, to be overseers or visitors of schools.[3] These are "to examine, approve, and dismiss school-teachers, appoint public exercises at their discretion, and give honorary marks of distinction." County towns are no longer required to have a Latin school, but every society might, by two-thirds vote, institute a school of higher order, for the common benefit of the inhabitants, "the object of which shall be to perfect the youth admitted therein in the rudiments of English grammar, in composition, in arithmetic, and geography, or, on particu-

[1] Barnard's History of Education.

[2] This was the foundation of the School Fund, which will be discussed separately.

[3] Previous to Oct., 1708, towns and ecclesiastical societies appointed school committies but there was no law till 1750. (Barnard p. 142.)

Latin and Greek languages; also in the first principles
orality, and, in general, to form them for usefulness
the various relations of social life."[1] To these, pupils
ed who shall have "passed through the ordinary course
he common schools and shall have attained to such ma-
d understanding, as to be capable of improvement in
e judgment of the overseers," and if too many for the
f the school apply "they shall be instructed in such
as to give all an equal opportunity."[1] One wonders
e. The private schools then were few; the books few
ut uniform. In 1796, Farmington used Webster's
ader, and Dwight's Geography.
dlesex County, an "association for the improvement
ls"[2] was founded and Rev. William Woodbridge, the
ng ladies' school in Middletown, made its president.[3]
n act was passed which was virtually a codification
The taxes for schools were to be $2 in each $1,000 of
The nine school visitors were to visit all schools twice
f them were to be present at each visit.[4] No time for
pen was specified, so they were closed when the funds
t made them of widely varying duration in different
whole, it can not be said that the new system worked

st apportionment of the interest of the school fund was
10 an act was passed whereby the expense of the
ver the public money was apportioned according to
ys each proprietor had sent a scholar or scholars to

ompelled proprietors of factories and manufacturing
see that the children in their employ were taught to
ipher, and had attention paid to the preservation of
see this carried out, the selectmen and civil authority
d of visitors.[5] Governor Wolcott, at the May session
schools were "insufficient and recommended the intro-
ancasterian system, as used in New Haven." This
aken up in several towns and such schools were held
In the same year the first educational magazine in
projected and the "American Journal of Education,"
m Russell as editor, was begun in 1826. There was
common schools by the State and the first move in this

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tory of Education.
hool Association. American Journal of Education, xiv, 397.
13.
2-5.
orthy as a very early instance of factory legislation.
ry of Guilford, p. 82.

direction was Hawley Olmsteds' motion in 1826, resulting in a committee, which reported in favor of such supervision; but nothing was then done.

In 1827, a society was organized in Hartford for improvement of the public schools.

DECLINE OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

Meantime the educational system of Connecticut had excited the admiration of several other States. A Kentucky legislative document, in 1822, said the "Connecticut system has become an example for other States and the admiration of the Union." This was once true; but under the system of no supervision, the schools were running down.

On November 13, 1830, a convention of teachers at Hartford made complaint of the decline of schools. The school fund produced apathy and carelessness among the towns. In the next year Governor Peters recommended a tax of a cent on each dollar of the assessment list to be collected and paid for benefit of the district schools. The legislature gave $10,000 for colleges, but did not heed this suggestion.

In 1836, Governor Edwards complained of deficiency in the character of teachers. The same year, at an extra session in December, the Town Deposit Fund[1] was received from the surplus in the United States Treasury. Things steadily grew worse; in 1838 an investigation was held at Governor Ellsworth's instance, and an official report made. From it we learn that parents took little interest in the schools; the school visitors were not always faithful; teachers were often poorly qualified and inefficient; their pay, being on the average $14.50 for men and $5.75 for women, exclusive of board,[2] was not adequate to their deserts, or equal to the rewards of skill and industry in other fields of labor. The great diversity of schoolbooks was an evil, the schoolhouses were often unfit for use, and over 6,000 children of school age were out of school. Furthermore, private schools were established in nearly every place of any size, and 10,000 children of the richer classes were in them, there being 60,000 or 70,000 in common schools. In consequence of these things an act was passed to "provide for the better supervision of common schools."[3] By it the governor, commissioner of the school fund, and eight others, one from each county, to be annually appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate, were made a board of commissioners of common schools. They were to report annually; to them in turn the visitors of the school societies were to report, and unless the latter did so they were not to have their schools certified as "kept according to law," and hence they would lose their share in the school fund. This board was to have a secretary, to receive not over $3 a day and expenses while in service. Under this new system the common schools, which seemed "struck with paralysis," were soon to revive.

[1] This will be discussed separately.

[2] Barnard, p. 165; American Journal of Education, v, 114.

[3] Barnard, p. 166.

THE SCHOOL FUND.

charter of Connecticut gave her "to the South Sea on
"[1] and after the grant of New York to the Duke of York
ned her grant still ran from where his ended. With
settled the Wyoming Valley; but the United States
hat to Pennsylvania, after hearing the case, the Con-
hen extended from the eastern boundary of Ohio to the

r 30, 1786, by a deed of cession, she gave all that vast
General Government, as she had agreed to do some-
erving a tract extending 120 miles west from Pennsyl-
the average, 52 miles wide. This was the northeast
and contained 3,300,000 acres. The tract is known in
ce yet as "New Connecticut," or the "Western Re-
mprises the counties of Ashtabula, Trumbull, Lake,
ge, Cuyahoga, Medina, Lorain, Huron, Erie, and the
ahoning, and Summit.[2]

), Connecticut relinquished to the United States all
ction over it, the United States giving up all claims to
91, an attempt was made to sell it and use the proceeds
of the ministry. In 1792, 500,000 acres of it, the so-
nds," were given to the sufferers from the depredations
uring the Revolution. In May, 1793, the State voted to
he land. In October of the same year another attempt
e the proceeds from the sale for the support of religion.
the original bill passed, much to the dissatisfaction of
o adopted resolutions disapproving the measure. The
much interest and the debate was printed in full in the
that then rarely happened. The act provided that—

ing from the sale of the territory belonging to this State, lying
of Pennsylvania, be and the same is hereby, established a per-
terest whereof is granted and shall be appropriated to the use
several ecclesiastical societies, churches, or congregations of all
his State, to be by them applied to the support of their respective
ers of the gospel, and schools of education, under such rules and
ll be adopted by this or some future session of the general as-

he disapproval shown, the act was repealed by the
May, 1794, but to this the upper house did not con-
th agreed to pass a resolution suspending the sale of
esent.[4]

794, the upper house passed another bill, much like the
the lower house, ordering it to be printed, continued

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n. Manual, 1888, 53.
ard, 55-110. Hollister, Hist. of Conn., II, 571-576.
ard, pp. 65-73.
ard, pp. 74-95.

it to the next session.[1] In that winter the subject was again discussed in town meetings and in the papers, and President Dwight, in his Thanksgiving sermon at Greenfield Hill, where he was then pastor, spoke in favor of it.[2]

In May, 1795, an act was finally passed—94 yeas to 52 nays—that the

> Proceeds of this sale are to be made into a perpetual fund, from which shall be, and hereby is, appropriated to the support of schools in the several societies constituted by law, according to the list of polls and ratable estates.

Ecclesiastical societies were forbidden to have power over schooling, and the act of October, 1793, was finally repealed. A committee of eight was to conduct the sale, and the lands were not to be sold off for less than $1,000,000. The sale was effected to a company of Connecticut men for $1,200,000, payable in five years, and the committee reported the sale to the legislature in October, 1795.[3] Up to 1800 the original committee managed the fund. Then Messrs. John Treadwell, Thomas Y. Seymour, Shubael Abbe, and the state treasurer,[4] were appointed "managers of the funds arising in the sales of the Western Reserve." They took care of it till 1809, and in the first thirteen years the total interest was $456,757.44, an average of $35,135.18 per annum. The first apportionment of the school fund came in 1799, and consisted of the interest which had accumulated from September 2, 1797, and equaled $60,403.78. In March, 1800, the dividend was $23,651.

The report of the managers in October, 1809, showed much unpaid interest and some collateral securities unsafe. This made it seem advisable that the management of the fund should be given to one man, who should devote his whole time to it. A committee, of which Hon. David Daggett was chairman, recommended this, and it was adopted. Accordingly at the May session of the legislature, in 1810, Hon. James Hillhouse, then United States Senator, was appointed first commissioner of the school fund.[5] He resigned his seat in the Senate and took the office. He found matters in a bad condition; the capital was largely in debt from the original purchasers and substituted securities, which had been complicated by insolvency, death, etc.; the interest was often in arrears, and the debtors were scattered. Without a single lawsuit or spending one dollar for counsel, "he reduced the disordered management to an efficient system; disentangled its affairs from loose and embarrassed connections with personal securities and indebted estates; rendered it productive of a large, regular, and increasing dividend, and converted its doubtful claims into well secured and solid capital." During his fifteen years of service the dividends averaged $52,061.35, and the capital was increased to $1,719,434.24. When a constitution was adopted for the State, in 1818, the only provisions in regard to education were one confirming the charter of Yale College,[6] and one providing that—

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[1] Barnard, p. 96.
[2] Barnard, p. 97.
[3] Barnard, p. 103.
[4] Barnard, p. 146.
[5] Barnard, p. 147.
[6] Constitution, Art. 8, Sec. 2.

he School Fund shall remain a perpetual fund, the interest of
lably appropriated to the support and encouragement of the
hools throughout the State, and for the equal benefit of all the
value and amount of said fund shall, as soon as practicable, be
nanner as the General Assembly may prescribe, published, and
troller's office, and no law shall ever be made, authorizing said
o any other use than the encouragement and support of pub-
ls, among the several school societies, as justice and equity

islature decided that the tax of $2 on each $1,000
n the income from the school fund should exceed
id the next year.[1]

o an impression that improvement in the schools had
h increase of the school fund, Governor Wolcott re-
al assembly, in his message, of their duty to see if
lic schools be well carried out.[2]

e of assistant commissioner was created, and Seth
hfield, appointed to it, with a salary of $1,000 and

llhouse, who had received $1,500 a year while in office,
Beers succeeded him with a salary of $1,200. He held
our years, till 1849.[3] Under him the fund increased
nd the average income was $97,815.15, rising during
the office from $72,418.30 to $133,356.50. The total
during this time was $2,347,563.80. He was suc-
Gordon Trumbull, who held office two years. After
Palmer, in 1851. His first report[4] shows an income
ving $1.40 per capita to the children of school age.
been but $0.85 per capita, and had gradually in-
its highest figure, in 1850. The fund amounted to
ien, for some years, a policy was adopted of changing
nually,[5] till Hon. Albert Sedgwick was appointed in
e twelve years, and under him the dividends reached
e, $143,193.75, in 1857.

eorge A. Payne became commissioner of school fund;
Munyan; in 1876, Henry C. Mill, and in 1881, Jeremiah
t efficient commissioner. When he took office he
newhat depleted by injudicious investments, but it
ored to its old amount, and in 1888, the date of the
nted to $2,019,572.40, and yielded a dividend of
were then in the State 154,932 children of school age,
nd amounted to $0.75 per capita.

Review, April, 1823.

L. Bacon; American Journal of Education, vi, 325–367; History
rican Journal of Education, vi, 367–426.
ts first regularly published in 1826. Report for 1851.
n; 1853, Loren P. Waldo; 1854, Mason Cleveland.

The Hon. Henry Barnard, in a recent letter to the author, claims for Connecticut "the origination of at least the earliest and largest endowment of the common schools." A policy leading in that direction is shown by the State School and Town Deposit Funds and by the many gifts from towns and private individuals to schools. The Connecticut influence in the Ordinance of 1787, setting apart a portion of all Government land for schools, is worthy of note in this connection.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS SINCE 1839.

At the May session of 1839, the "act to provide for the better supervision of common schools," was passed. The board constituted by it was to report yearly "a statement of the condition of every common school in the State and of the means of popular education generally," and "such plans for the improvement and better organization of the common schools and all such matters relating to popular education as they may deem expedient to communicate." The board could not itself change the system; it was simply to report what it was and suggest improvements. Its secretary was to "devote his whole time, if required, under the direction of the board, to ascertain the condition, increase the interest, and promote the usefulness of common schools." Henry Barnard, the national educator, was chosen secretary, and the publication of the "Connecticut Common School Journal" was begun. In 1841, he prepared, at the request of the board, a revised school law, which passed the legislature, but a year later a reaction came and Governor Cleveland, in his message to the legislature, recommended the abolition of the school board, which recommendation was followed. Some thought too much had been spent, though Mr. Barnard had expended for education every cent he had received from the State.[1] It seemed as if the labor was wasted, but the repealed statutes were later restored, and the foundation had been laid.

In 1844, Governor Baldwin recommended the improvement of schools to the legislature, and a committee was appointed to examine the condition of schools and report, "together with such plans and suggestions for their improvement as may seem calculated substantially to promote the usefulness of schools and the interests of education generally in the United States." They suggested in their report the appointment of a superintendent of public schools, the establishment of a normal school, and the appointment of an acting school visitor from each local board. The first and last of these were adopted by the general assembly; the second was not. The Hon. Seth P. Beers, commissioner of the school fund, was made ex-officio school superintendent, and presented his first report in 1846. The system proved an improvement over the old headless arrangement, and the abolition of small districts was suggested. Mr. Bunce, of Hartford, offered a prize of $100 for an

[1] American Journal of Education.

ecessity and means of improving the common schools [1] This was won by ex-President Noah Porter, of Yale ommended the examination of teachers by one or more the holding of teachers' institutes, a normal school, for teachers, gradation of schools in cities and large blishment of high schools, and property taxation for nce continued his agitation of the subject, and among a convention of teachers at Hartford and the founding , of the "Connecticut School Journal," which was pub- ars.

tate Normal School was founded, and its principal was superintendent of common schools. Of course, Mr. osen to that office.[2]

gal obligation to raise a tax for the support of schools t of the increase of the dividend from the school fund, which did not receive a sufficient grant for their schools e, assessed the surplus on the parents of scholars. turally followed, and a great lack of interest in own, while a too minute subdivision into districts interest and diminished the opportunity in schools truction.[3] In 1854, this unfortunate state of things y the passage of an act imposing on each town ng 1 cent on each $1 of the grand list for support of as followed up by the abolition of school societies in ansferrence of their functions to the towns. In 1851 Common School Journal, which Mr. Barnard had given resumed by him and transferred to the State Teachers' 855.

tate Board of Education was formed, consisting of the utenant governor, and four others, one from each strict. The schools of the State are still governed by it. own tax was increased to such an amount as to make l, in 1871, the State made an appropriation of 50 cents of school age, in addition to the dividend from the e schools are thus governed by the State board of oard of school visitors for each town, either 3, 6, or 9 the district committee, unless its functions have been te of the town to the school visitors.[5] Of late, a whole- as appeared to consolidate school districts and place of schools in the hands of the town.

the public schools the State supports an industrial school for imbeciles at Lakeville, and provides for the

Journal of Education, XIII, 726.
Journal of Education, XIV, 211.
Journal of Education, XV, 275.
did away with the rate bill or payments by parents.
Journal of Education, XXIV, 223ff.

deaf and dumb at the American Asylum, in Hartford, the oldest one in the country, founded by the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet in 1817, and at the Whipple Home School at Groton. The blind are provided for at the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum at Boston, Mass.

THE TOWN DEPOSIT FUND.

In 1837, the United States divided the surplus in the Treasury among the several States. Connecticut's share was $763,661.83, and, on receipt of it, the State resolved "that each town keep and preserve its share of the money as a deposit and in trust for the State, making good any loss and repaying the whole on demand." One-half of the income was to be used for education and one-half for the current expenses of the town. The fund "illustrates the fate of gratuities given to relieve communities of their bounden duties."

In 1859, a law was passed directing that all the income be used for education, and in 1887 the ostensible amount of the fund was $753,326.87. Of this amount about five-sevenths has been borrowed from the fund by the towns, or, in other words, they have misappropriated it to their own use. They have not put "themselves in the position of borrowers, but they have taken the fund, regarding it as belonging to them. It can not be found that the fund adds to the number of schools, or augments the appliances, or the libraries; it does not add to the wages of good teachers, or promote good teaching, it does not increase attendance, or decrease illiteracy, or arouse any general or public interest in the schools themselves."[1]

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES AND THE NORMAL SCHOOL.[2]

In January, 1825, in the Connecticut Observer, was made the first presentation of the claims of a normal school by the Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, of the American Asylum for Deaf and Dumb.[3] Nothing, however, came of this, nor of the convention at Hartford of the friends of education in 1830.

In 1839 the first practical move was made. A State teachers' convention was held at Hartford;[4] and in the autumn of that year the first teachers' institute was held at the same place, at the expense of the Hon. Henry Barnard. He tried to get an appropriation of $5,000 for this purpose, but was unsuccessful. However, he started a teachers' class in Hartford and persevered. In 1847 these teachers' institutes were authorized by law, and by the end of 1864, 150 of such institutes had been held. They are among the most stimulating and invigor-

[1] Report of Board of Education, 1888, pp. 134-147.

[2] Seth J. North and State Normal School; American Journal of Education, VI, 104-109.

[3] American Journal of Education, XIV, 244.

[4] American Journal of Education, XV, 593; "Educational Commission and Association in Connecticut."

es to all instructors.[1] In April, 1848, the State tion was formed at Meriden,[2] holding yearly meetings. commissioners for common schools, during the four ence, annually urged the establishment of a "Semi- rs," as did their secretary. In 1849 these efforts nd the legislature passed an "Act for the Establish- Normal School," and appropriated $11,000, received wo banks, "for a Normal School or Seminary for the rs in the art of instructing and governing the Common te." A board of eight trustees was appointed and the d at New Britain. There it was opened on May 15, lents, it being the eighth in the country.[3] The citi- ain agreed to provide for the school "a suitable build- nd library, to the value of $16,000, and to place all er the management of the principal of the Normal s of Practice."[4]

rd of trustees was abolished and the State board of nade *ex officio* trustees. Up to that time there had , most of whom taught in Connecticut, and by them ducation was much raised. The good influence of the all parts of the State; but it had many opposers ed in 1867 in closing it for a time by decree of general s soon revived, however, and started on a new career

of New Haven opened a city training school, which ost useful in providing good teachers for its schools.[6] udents in the State Normal School was, in 1887, 292, rease rendered necessary the establishment of a new gly a second normal school was opened at Williman- 1889. At the same time a normal department was tion with the Norwich Free Academy.

TICUT SUMMER SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS.

of 1888 a summer school was opened at Niantic, the er resort near New London. In the schoolhouse of the churches are held the sessions of the school, which er four hundred teachers. The school is conducted . Hine, secretary of the State board of education, . P. Willard, of Colchester, and Mr. Fred Ayer Ver-

of Education, xv, 387; "Teachers' Institutes in Connecticut."
of Education, xv, 593.
of Education, xiv, 244; xv, 275.
School, 1853.
of Education, xvii, 654; Normal School in Connecticut.
of Education, xvii, 817; City Training School in New Haven.
Haven, the Welch Training School, was opened in 1884.

plank, of Colchester. The hotels give reduced rates, and those who can not find accommodations there, about one-third of the members, obtain board in private families. Lecturers from all over the country come to speak on their specialties and the school is divided into several departments, those of reading, arithmetic, history, grammar, microscopy, pedagogics, etc. "It is a school of methods, not mere information," says a former pupil; "we get others' ideas of how to teach these special branches rather than learn facts about them." This school, which is held for the first two weeks in July, is said to be the first of the sort in the United States supported by a State for the benefit of its teachers.[1]

HON. HENRY BARNARD.

No sketch of education in Connecticut would be complete without a brief biography of "the national educator," Henry Barnard. He was born at Hartford, January 24, 1811, in the house in which he now lives. After fitting for college, he entered Yale and graduated there in 1830. He then spent several years in the study of law, to which profession he intended to devote himself. After some time occupied by travel in Europe he returned home and was elected to the legislature from Hartford in 1837. At that session of the general assembly he secured the passage of a resolution requiring the comptroller to obtain from school visitors official returns respecting public schools. A year later he originated and secured the passage of an "act to provide for the better supervision of the common schools." The board of commissioners created by this act, appointed him their secretary, which position he accepted, refusing numerous tempting offers which promised him success in the legal profession. Without any purpose but to elevate the schools of the State he threw his whole energy into the task and accomplished much during the four years he held the position.

In 1843, when the act under which he had been appointed was repealed, he accepted a similar position in Rhode Island. In doing so he gave up for the time the project of a "History of Public Schools and the Means of Popular Education in the United States." Chancellor Kent said of Mr. Barnard's first report for Connecticut that it was "a bold and startling document, founded on the most painstaking and critical inquiry, and containing a minute, accurate, comprehensive, and instructive exhibition of the practical condition and operation of the common school system of education." He labored in Rhode Island until 1849, and so vivified the school system there as to procure, in 1845, the passage of the first efficient school code the State ever had, and to obtain for the first time in Rhode Island's history taxation for the support of schools.

He resigned on account of ill health and returned home, but scarcely had he reached there when he was chosen principal of the State Normal

[1] Manuscript letter of Monroe N. Wetmore, August, 1889.

intendent of common schools. These posts he resigned next year began the publication of the encyclopedic nal of Education." In 1857 he became chancellor of Wisconsin, which position he held two years. In 1865 president of St. John's College, Annapolis, Md., and he was the first United States Commissioner of Edu- ks on education have been numerous and his influence of common schools in the United States has probably n that of any other one man.[1]

[1] New England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 445.

CHAPTER IV.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN CONNECTICUT SINCE 1776.

The earliest form of secondary education in Connecticut, as we have seen, is found in the town free or grammar schools. These schools were not free in the sense in which we now understand the word; but the name was derived from Europe, where *scholæ liberæ*, free schools, were those not under ecclesiastical jurisdiction. These schools were not elementary in their aim, but were grammar schools, and prepared students for the universities. While chartered and endowed, they asked tuition of each pupil The founders of Connecticut brought the idea of schools of this sort with them from England. Hooker and Stone had taught grammar schools; Hopkins had studied in that of Shrewsbury;[1] Higginson, in that of Leicester. The "wellsprings of classical education," as founded in Connecticut, are thus described: "They were not public nor charity schools, but were like the grammar schools in England and the other colonies. They were unrestricted as to a class of children or scholars specified in the instruments by which they were founded, and supported so as not to depend on the fluctuating attendance and tuition of students for the maintenance of a master. They were endowed with grants of land, gifts, and bequests, and an allowance out of the common stock of the town." They were especially for instruction in Latin and Greek, and in part were supported by payment of tuition or rates by the parents of the scholars.[2]

Other influences, supplying a secondary education, were the instruction given by the clergymen, where there was no higher school; the village libraries, found in nearly every town; and the training gained by all in town meeting and by almost all in the holding of local offices. These opportunities partly explain why so many Connecticut men going into other States so soon stepped into places of authority.[3]

THE ACADEMY.

About the time of the Revolution a second type of school succeeded the old free school. This type was the academy. Whence the name came has been questioned. It has been suggested that the term followed the emigrants from England, having been applied in that country "to seminaries of learning established by the non-Conformists, to dis-

[1] Kennedy's History of Shrewsbury Royal Free School.

[2] American Journal of Education, I, 297-314.

[3] Conversation with Henry Barnard.

m the schools and colleges of the Church of England."[1] first advanced by the Hon. Henry Barnard, is that the the academy came from Defoe through Franklin. issued an Essay on Projects, which contained plans for nglish philology, on the plan of the French and Spanish lso plans for a military academy and an academy for cases the term is used as at present in education. In ta Triumphans" he had a scheme for an academy of

sses his indebtedness to Defoe's Essay on Projects, and onable to presume that from him he derived the term h he used in the Proposals for the Education of Youth, This tract contained Proposed Hints for an Academy, use of those who were interested in the founding of on in Philadelphia.[3] From Franklin, the idea easily o Connecticut, as some think the idea of town subscrip- . Franklin was familiar with the State, and one of his orrespondents was the Rev. Jared Eliot, M. D., of Kil- he old academies which came into being, one, that at eady been described. Others soon sprang up in the hed the highest education which over three-fourths of ceived. Of these schools, as of the old free schools, the he leading spirits, and the sons and daughters of these nen became, from the training thus received, the most istinguished of our citizens.

FAMOUS ACADEMIES.

liest and best of these old-time academies was that of ht, at Greenfield Hill,[4] which he conducted from 1783 one of the earliest coëducational institutions in the e a most thorough training. These academies were e high schools which have followed them in that they ot only for the children from one town but from all hborhood. The pupils were picked boys and girls, the r more towns, often coming to the academy at great ustees were often chosen from different towns, and it t when some celebrated trustee visited the school. As really to study, there was but little difficulty in main- ipline.[5]

ademy, at North Fairfield, was founded in 1781, and suc- ld grammar school. Mr. Staples made to it a generous

Ecclesiastical History of Connecticut, p. 251. (D. N. Camp.)
l of Education, XXVI. 427.
l of Education, XXVII. 441.
ted 1804. (Barnard's History of Education in Connecticut.)
th Henry Barnard, Sept., 1889.

donation in land and notes on interest. He named the trustees and appointed them to erect a free school. They were incorporated in May, 1781, as "The Trustees of the Staples Free School," and authorized to hold property yielding an income of not over $1,000.[1]

In 1770 the first academy in Windham County was organized, at Plainfield. This was chartered in 1784, and in 1816 had a fund of $834, given by Isaac Coit,[2] of Plainfield, from the interest of which with the tuition of some 80 scholars the school was supported. To the school, which Samuel and Eliphalet Nott taught in their youth, came students not merely from Connecticut, but also from the two-thirds of Rhode Island nearest it.[3]

In Woodstock a rival academy was founded in 1800 and chartered two years later. It was built by the voluntary contributions and labor of the people of the neighborhood, and the building was dedicated on February 4, 1802. Many men of note received their education there. In 1868 $10,000 was raised to put the academy on a firm foundation and a new building was erected.[4]

In 1802 the Berlin Academy was incorporated, and in 1803 the Bacon Academy, at Colchester. For this a fund of $36,000 was given by Mr. Bacon[5] and "a very beautiful building," 73 by 34 feet and three stories high, was erected. This school being well endowed, became very large, having in 1816 some 200 pupils.

In 1806 Noah Webster wrote of Connecticut:

> By law a grammar school may be established in any town in the State by a vote of the inhabitants in legal meeting, and many academies are established and maintained by private funds. In these are taught not only the primary branches of learning, but geography, grammar, the languages, and higher branches of mathematics. There are also academies for young ladies, in which are taught the additional branches of needlework, drawing, and embroidery. Among the academies of the first reputation are one in Plainfield, and the Bacon Academy, at Colchester. The most distinguished schools for young ladies are the Union School,[6] in New Haven, and one in Litchfield.

In 1806, the Stratford Academy was incorporated and, three years later, one at Wallingford, which had 45 scholars and no fund in 1816. It then taught Greek, Latin, English grammar, and other branches of useful knowledge.[7]

In 1814, the Danbury Academy was incorporated; in 1821, that at Fairfield; in 1823, that at Goshen; in 1825, Lee's[8] Academy at East Guilford, now Madison (this was succeeded by the Hand Academy in

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[1] Trumbull, II, 546. The Fairfield Academy was chartered in 1804.

[2] Trumbull, II, 547.

[3] Conversation with H. Barnard.

[4] History of Woodstock Academy, by C. W. Bowen.

[5] Trumbull, II, 546.

[6] Chartered in 1812. Amer. Jour. Ed., XXVI, 202.

[7] Trumbull, II, 546.

[8] Named after Capt. Frederick Lee.

Daniel Hand,[1] the well-known philanthropist), and the Tolland academies in 1829. Other academies were one ed in 1817; the one at Brooklyn, incorporated in 1830; in Saybrook, in 1833; the Killingworth, North Green- gton ones, in 1834.[2] The last one, in 1832, had the the officers of Yale College that "the school, after a rs, has fully answered expectation and is distinguished f its trustees and the accuracy and completeness of its ction."[3]

Female Seminary, founded in 1815, was incorporated in ut 1825 to 1833 it was conducted by Miss Catherine E. reat success, drawing from 120 to 160 pupils from e.[4] In 1832, there were other female academies worthy ield, New London, and Norwich,[5] chartered respectively d 1829.

Academy at Haddam was incorporated in 1839; the my, in 1842; the Parker Academy at Woodbury, in aramaug Academy at New Preston, in 1852. This last tion of the unincorporated New Preston Academy, a ol, which the father of President Day, of Yale College, hich many men of note were educated. In 1854 Mrs. gave $10,000 for the Guilford Institute.[6] But by this high schools had begun their successful career.

HARTFORD GRAMMAR AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

condition in which the former institution was left con- 9, when the pastors of the churches were added to the ging the school, and arrangements were made for ex- andidates for admission and monthly examinations of presence of the clergy inspired fresh vigor, as their e as elsewhere, was regarded by them as a duty to be

native of Guilford, having made his fortune in the South before ellion, gave during his life $1,000,000 to the American Missionary education of negroes, and made the Association his residuary

Ecclesiastical History of Connecticut. 251 (D. N. Camp). Com- ademies.

Educational and Literary Institutions, 1832. American Jour- XXVIII, 311.

al of Education, XXVIII, 69-82.

al of Education, XXVII, 311.

not mentioned in the text were the Middlesex at Middletown, 28, the Morris Academy at Litchfield in 1819, the New Haven ary Academy in 1824, the New Township Academy in New Haven wn Academical Association in 1838, the Waterbury Academy in High School in 1851, and the Connecticut Female Institute at

al of Education, XXVII, 185.

sacredly performed. In truth, education suffered after the power of the clergy died away, and the young lawyers, who took their places in the management of the schools, performed their duties perfunctorily. The consequent decline was one cause of the passing of the act of 1838, already referred to, whereby a paid supervision of schools was established.[1]

In April, 1793, it was voted—

That that part of the regulations heretofore adopted, that permits English to be taught two days in each week, be, and the same is hereby, annulled and repealed, and free use of the building is voted the teacher for teaching the pupils English Branches and arithmetic in those hours not appropriated to said school, at the expense of the parents and guardians of said youths.

This is interesting, as showing the narrowness of the previous curriculum.

On December 23, 1797, the trustees voted to apply to the town for permission to be incorporated, and this being granted the desired act passed the General Assembly in May, 1798.[2] The school was to "be constituted, according to the original intent of the donor, for the education of youth in the rudiments of the higher branches of science, not taught in common schools, of Latin, Greek, and other useful languages, of Grammar, of the English tongue, of geography, navigation, bookkeeping, surveying, and other similar studies, preparatory to an education at the University, or a life of active employment."[3]

Thence onward to 1828 there were on an average about thirty students, taught by a recent graduate of Yale. Up to 1817 there was no charge, then until 1828 a fee of $1 per quarter was paid by each pupil.

In 1828 the plan of instruction and accommodations were enlarged and the one man classical school became a New England Academy with four teachers. The new plan was not a success, the large expense for a building diminished the fund, and the increased tuition caused attendance to fall off.[4] Many men of note were principals of the Grammar School in the first half of this century; among them Edward Beecher, Lyman Coleman, F. A. P. Barnard, A. D. Stanley, E. A. Sophocles, and N. P. Seymour. The conviction arose that the city ought to have a public High School and this was first advocated by the Hon. Henry Barnard in a speech on July 4, 1838. In 1839 the first School Society in Hartford discussed the "expediency of establishing a High School for the older and more advanced scholars of this school society," but no final action was taken for nearly eight years.

On January 16, 1847, the subject was again brought before the School Society, considerable agitation having been aroused by the

[1] Conversation with H. Barnard. Clergy and Popular Education (W. C. Fowler). American Journal of Education, XVII. 211.

[2] American Journal of Education, XXVII. 185.

[3] Barnard's History of Education in Connecticut.

[4] Public High School in Hartford. American Journal of Education, XXVIII, 224–256.

1846 of a tract by the Hon. Henry Barnard, entitled
s respecting a High School in Hartford." As a result,
7, it was "voted that this Society proceed to establish
ool for instruction in the higher branches of an English
ary branches of a classical education, for all the male
lren of suitable age and acquirements in this Society,
o avail themselves of its advantages."[1] At the same
re appropriated and a building was immediately erected
f Asylum and Ann streets, which was dedicated on
47.[2] With this High School the Grammar School was
d the income of its fund has since been used for the
lassical teacher in the school. The first building, which
of 300, became too small and a second one was erected
present site in Hopkins street. This cost $159,000 and
pupils. In 1877 an addition was made, at the cost of
seated 200 more. On January 24, 1882, the whole build-
with all its contents, but only four recitations were lost
l was housed in temporary quarters. The third and
g was dedicated on January 3, 1884, and cost, with
atus, $315,000. It has a capacity for 625, and in 1888
re enrolled. The building is fire-proof, and in the secu-
e.[3] The basement is of rock faced brown stone; the
of Philadelphia pressed brick with brown stone dress-

High School has a wide reputation, as being one of the
in New England, or indeed in the Nation, its graduates
the thoroughness of the education therein obtained.

OPKINS GRAMMAR SCHOOL AT NEW HAVEN.

as continued its separate existence and has been fairly
ing, from its situation in New Haven, some advantages
ol for Yale.
e Hartford School, the principals for many years were
s of Yale. Among the most distinguished ones have
James Murdock, Dr. Eli Ives, Prof. C. A Goodrich, the
, Prof. Elisha Mitchell, George Hill, the Rev. W. C.
nt Hector Humphreys, President Noah Porter, and
d, under whom the school was very flourishing.
60, the school celebrated its two hundredth anniversary,
e Rev. L. W. Bacon delivered the Historical Address.
ox is the present principal. It is situated on the cor-
l Wall streets and possesses a brick schoolhouse with
y ground.

School, American Journal of Education, XVII, 339.

Directory History, p. 69).

THE HOPKINS BEQUESTS.

It is interesting to note how the talents have been improved by the various recipients. From Mr. Hopkins, Hartford received £400; in 1852 this amounted to $20,000, yielding $1,500 income, and in 1878 to $37,580, yielding $2,262, of which $1,200 was paid to a classical teacher, $40 to the treasurer, and the rest was added to the capital. New Haven's £412 in 1878 was represented by a house and lot for the school and $3,000 endowment; in all some $20,000. Hadley's £308, with some other small gifts, amounted to $35,000 in 1878, yielding an income of $2,621.

Harvard's £100 has entirely disappeared. The £500 adjudged to it, with questionable propriety in 1712, with additions from the General Court, in 1878 equaled $53,847 and a Detur fund of $1,200.

THE NORWICH FREE ACADEMY.

This is a school of which the city on the Thames may well be proud, and which, better than almost any other in the State, combines the good features of the old academy with those of the new high school. The first settlers of Norwich were too much occupied with watching neighboring tribes of Indians to pay much attention to education, and, in 1700, the town was presented by the grand jury, "for failing to maintain a school to instruct children." But, as affairs grew more settled, an interest in learning sprung up here, and in 1787, four years after the Revolution was ended, Dr. Daniel Lathrop endowed a free school with a gift of £500 and presented it to the town.[1] After many years of useful service, Dr. Lathrop's school was given up by the town, "on account of some impracticable conditions attached to the gift."

Then came an era of private academies, some of the heads of which were actively engaged in efforts to reform the public schools and to elevate their standard. The old system of school societies and districts had run riot in Norwich, where "upon the territory of the original nine miles square were no less than forty independent school organizations, each having its distinct officers and independent authority."[2]

A movement for the consolidation of these districts and the grading of the schools was begun about 1836 and was submitted to the voters in 1840 by Rev. Mr. Paddock and Deacon Francis A. Perkins, the school visitors.

It was rejected by a large majority; but the subject was continually discussed. Prof. John P. Gulliver, now of Andover Theological Seminary, was very prominent in the movement; but it was seen that public initiative could not be awaited, and therefore the advocates of better education turned to private endowment.

For two years Prof. Gulliver labored to raise the sum needed, and

[1] American Journal of Education, II, 664, and III, 190, on "Norwich Free Academy."

[2] Prof. J. P. Gulliver's Address at the "Dedication of the Slater Memorial Building, of the Norwich Academy."

satisfaction of having $76,000 subscribed, of which
t aside for an endowment and the rest used for land
With subsequent gifts to the academy, it is estimated
ty in land, buildings, and endowment nearly equals
school was chartered in 1854, the donors of the endow-
corporators. Among them were Russell Hubbard,
ngham, General Williams, W. P. Greene, and others—
. The building was opened October 21, 1856, and the
h was at once aroused to appropriate money for new
d for increased efficiency in teaching, so as to prepare
academy. The ground on which the school was built
rs. Harriet Peck Williams, who endowed a library for
$5,000 in 1856 and afterward increased her gift to double
h her husband, who alone endowed a scholarship of $30,
ee prizes in book-keeping, letter writing, and reading.
n became a fine one and has been for several years the
lary education in Eastern Connecticut.
hips of $30 each were endowed in it by the late Charles
l the late J. Newton Perkins established a fund from
which ten bronze medals are annually given. Excel-
paratus, a convenient Chemical Laboratory, and a val-
Herbarium are owned by the school. The students have
0 in the first term the school opened to 240 in 1889 and
and, by the munificent gift of the Slater building, the
to accommodate this increased number.
A. Slater erected for the school the Slater Memorial
ost of about $160,000, in memory of his deceased father,
ter, the giver of the Slater Fund for education in the
dedicated on November 4, 1886, with addresses from
iver and Pres. D. C. Gilman of the Johns Hopkins Uni-
uilt of brick and brown sandstone on a foundation of
, is wainscoted with marble, and has its interior walls
sed brick and terra cotta. The lower floor contains a
ctures, etc., and two smaller halls which can be thrown
us accommodate over 1,000 persons. The second and
occupied by a magnificent Museum Hall, an exquisite
d two class rooms. In the building, public courses of
en during the winter. The Museum was opened with
emonies on November 22, 1888. Its object is to illus-
of the arts of sculpture and painting. The great mas-
ek and Italian art are here found in plaster reproduc-
ranged so that they can be studied chronologically.[1]

with 60 students, is conducted in this building, opened in 1890.
d night classes. Classes are formed for study of the antique life,
ter color, pen and ink, and out-door sketching, design, draught-
Lectures are given on the history of sculpture and painting and

SLATER MEMORIAL BUILDING—NORWICH FREE ACADEMY.

The South Gallery is devoted to photographs, illustrating the progress of the art of painting. These are grouped according to the schools of art to which they belong and are placed in a manner particularly adapted for study. There are also cases in the Museum containing plaster casts of armor and electrotype reproductions of Greek coins.

Each student from Norwich pays a charge of $5 a term for incidentals, and those outside of the town, of whom there were 48 in 1888–'89, pay $10 tuition a term in addition. Thus a thorough secondary education is given for a small cost and "no pupil of high character and scholarship would be suffered to drop out of school because of inability to pay the charge either for incidentals or for tuition."

There are three courses of study: The Classical, leading to college; the Scientific, planned after consultation with representatives of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the Sheffield Scientific School, leading to any of the scientific schools; and the General, aiming "to give a good training for practical life."[1] How high the students stand is shown by the fact that seven out of eight of those who applied for admission to Yale in 1888 were admitted without conditions. "Brown, Dartmouth, Williams, Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley receive students on full standing upon the Academy's certificate of preparation." Dr. Robert P. Keep, whose edition of the Iliad is well known, is principal of the school and it has flourished greatly under his guidance. To him the author is indebted for the materials of this sketch.

In the fall of 1889, a new department, the Normal course, was added to the Free Academy. The questions which led to such addition were these: The boys on graduating from an academy enter college or business; but what shall the girls do? How can the Academy best open to its own girl graduates an honorable and useful professional career? It is settled that, in America, the teaching in our primary and grammar schools is mainly to be entrusted to women, and experience makes it clear that the High School graduate is not ready to undertake teaching without special training. To give this is the aim of the Normal Department of the Free Academy and "to open speedy and easy entrance to the teacher's calling to graduates of the Academy, and to other girls who have received an education equivalent to that implied by the possession of an Academy diploma. Girls only are received, because primary and grammar teaching is the work of girls. If our boys are to become teachers, they are advised to take the full college course and to enter the teacher's calling from college." The course in this new department is of one year and its success has been most gratifying, 40

[1] A two-years' course in manual training was established January, 1891. In the morning the regular studies are pursued; the afternoons are devoted in the first year to drawing and woodwork, in the second year to turning, carving, ornamental and artistic woodwork. It is not intended to fit boys for any particular trade, but to bring out their natural mechanical aptitude. The academy has two gymnasiums, and physical exercise is required.

d in three years, and 17 being now in attendance. Take he Norwich Free Academy is a remarkable success.

THE ERA OF HIGH SCHOOLS.

ng influence in secondary education in Connecticut High Schools, which have supplanted the old acad- ow the increased quickening of the popular interest in on, and it would be most pleasant, did space and the ook permit, to give a detailed sketch of each. How- can only mention some of them by name, not meaning importance, which is very great, since they fit the ma- th of the State for active life and are the preparatory ed the colleges.

gh school in the State is that at Middletown, founded New Britain followed with hers, and then came New The Hillhouse High School there occupies a very fine nge street, and has the reputation of being one of the he State. Under the management of Mr. Curtis, the nd Mr. Whitmore, the present one, the boys it has sent rried off the highest honors. Other excellent high e at Danielsonville, founded in 1860; at Bridgeport, in n, in 1881; at Stafford Springs, in 1884; at Bristol, in n, and at Stamford. The Hon. Henry Barnard, in a the author, suggests as one of Connecticut's greatest ation the number of text-books for academies and high by Connecticut men.

EPISCOPAL ACADEMY OF CONNECTICUT.

d of an attempt for an Episcopalian secondary school en made at Convention, on June 4, 1794. A committee ted to prepare an address "pointing out the importance an Episcopal Academy in this State," and to provide ers therefor. The next day the Committee requested Committee be appointed to prepare the address, to r the Academy, and to provide subscription papers.[1] a result of this, the Convention resolves to "establish an emy" and appoints a committee to hear proposals from gford, and Stratford as to the location of the Academy, h the Academy in that town, which by them shall be eligible." Another committee is appointed to frame a r the Academy.[2] The Constitution of the Academy was t year. It provided for a board of twenty-one trustees, hop and head of the Academy should be members, "the

ntion, p. 8. E. E. Beardsley, "Addresses and Discourses," 1892.
ntion, p. 11.

other trustees to be chosen by the Convention," some to be Episcopalian clergymen, others laymen "from any denomination of professing Christians." The Principal is to be a Presbyter of the Protestant Episcopal Church and to be chosen by Convention; the assistants are to be chosen by the trustees. "The English Language, Philosophy, Mathematics, History, and every other science usually taught at Colleges; likewise the dead languages, such as Greek and Latin" are to be taught here. "And whenever the finances of the Academy will admit, the trustees shall procure an instructor in the French language, purchase a library and philosophical apparatus, at their own discretion. Female education may be attended to under this institution by such instructors and under such regulations as the trustees shall direct." This last has, however, never been tried. "No by-laws of the academy shall compel the students to attend public worship but at such place or places as their respective parents or guardians shall direct.[1] The Rev. John Bowden was chosen first principal and the Academy was located at Cheshire. This school "was intended to be not only a preparatory school of a high order, but a college and a nursery of theological learning.[2] The attempts to make it a College are described elsewhere.

In 1798, the Convention determined to commence a fund for the Academy, by ascertaining "the grand levy of the Church in this State," and appropriated for the same purpose" the money formerly collected for the purpose of sending missionaries to the frontiers of the States."[3] The next year a vote was passed at Convention to have each clergyman, with one of his parishioners, previous to October 20, visit as many of his parishioners as possible and solicit donations from them for the use of the Episcopal Academy, and that one or more agents be appointed to go to Europe to solicit funds for the Academy, as soon as such a step could be afforded.[4]

In 1800, a committee was appointed to ascertain the necessary quota from each parish so as to raise $700 to send an agent of the Academy to Europe. The mission was never undertaken, but nearly every page of the journals of Convention bears witness to the anxious care the Protestant Episcopal Church bestowed upon its young institution.

In 1798, we learn the school building was a sightly one of brick, with a fine play ground around it. It had two large rooms on the lower floor, and the whole upper floor was a recitation and assembly room. The stairs were outside to save room. "The method of teaching here was the usual course of tasking and saying lessons, teaching more from the book than through the teacher." Dramatic exhibitions were occasionally given.

In 1801, Dr. William Smith, a man of rare qualities and tact for teaching and government, became principal.[5] The same year the Acad-

[1] Journal of Convention, pp. 14, 15.
[2] Beardsley, II, p. 6.
[3] Journal of Convention pp. 20, 21.
[4] Journal of Convention, pp. 23, 27.
[5] Cheshire Academy (S. W. Seton). American Journal of Education, XVII, 557.

rated, and in 1804 a lottery was granted for its benefit; as not as prosperous as had been hoped, and, in 1805,[1] de quite a despairing report of its condition. A new Rev. Mr. Bronson, was chosen, and things went on

library of Mr. Somaster, which he bequeathed to the ticut, was deposited with the Academy,[2] and an attempt same time to increase the Academy's library by dona- the library amounted to 200 volumes, mostly Greek and bout seventy students were in attendance and the orig- ,500 had increased to $25,000.[3]

ort on the condition of the Academy was made by a e Convention, and one on the Course of Study by the learn that of those educated at the Academy twenty- n Holy Orders, three are now candidates, and about n qualified to enter the various Colleges. The report[4] nd extended curriculum and tells of great proficiency nts. In the failure of the Eagle Bank much of the s were lost, and, Washington College being founded cademy languished, and, when Dr. Bronson died, it was

cademy having been reopened for some time, a plan to pporting was voted down, as "inexpedient, if not Soon after, however, the trustees were asked by the consider "the expediency of making some provision on or the whole of the students might contribute some- eir own expenses by the performance of suitable man- scheme soon failed and was never tried again.[6]

uilding, which had gone into decay, was repaired, and power of choosing the Principal was given to the trust- the Rev. Allen C. Morgan became principal, and was ssful until his untimely death in 1838. The school re- hands however. The Rev. E. Edwards Beardsley was d (1838–1844). Afterwards, as Dr. Beardsley, of New ne one of the most distinguished and influential clergy- ch. He was succeeded by the Rev. Seth B. Paddock n follow the Rev. Edward Ballard (1852–1857); the abcock (1857–1861), and the Rev. Sanford J. Horton e length of Dr. Horton's services is of itself an evi- alue. During his administration there were extensive nd enlargements in the buildings. He was succeeded

[1] Convention, pp. 35, 58.
[2] Conventions, pp. 52, 53, 54.
[3] 546.
[4] Convention, pp. 129, 133.
[5] Beardsley, II, 263–266.
[6] Beardsley, II, 300.
[7] Beardsley, II, 315.

THE GUNNERY, WASHINGTON, CONNECTICUT.

in 1892 by the Rev. James Stoddard, unanimously chosen. Continued progress is looked for under his administration. Military drill was introduced some years since." [1]

THE GUNNERY.[2]

The town of Washington has been as unique in its way as the Gunnery itself. The village is perched upon a hill, sloping with precipitous sides down to a swift river. All around lie rich farms, broken by wild stretches of swamp, ravine, and woodland. Nature and the hand of man have both done their best to make the region at once beautiful and picturesque. Until a few years ago, when a railroad penetrated the valley, the village was reached only by a stage coach, which plodded daily over the long hills to a station 10 miles away. In its isolation, the community grew up with singular simplicity of manners and rigid purity of life. Crime and vice have been almost unknown; for fifty years a rum shop has never been opened in the village, except as a rash and transitory experiment; the dwellings never used to be locked at night and neighbors ran in and out of the doors as freely as if all houses were owned in common. Add to these social traits of the village, hospitality and unbounded local pride, and one can see how favorable were the surroundings for a training spot for boys. The school had of necessity to be a part of the community. It received from the village the prevailing tone of good morals, simplicity, and sweetness. The boys needed no rigid bounds, no narrow code of rules as to going here or not going there, for go where they would in the village they could find only incentive to good conduct. This environment of the school and the impress that it received from the community around it were large factors in the Gunnery scheme of education, and in the success to which it attained.

Frederick W. Gunn was a native of Washington, Conn., and, after graduation at Yale in 1837, where he was a classmate of Evarts, Waite, Tilden, and Pierrepont Edwards, he came back to his native place and opened a school there. He was an abolitionist, and even in Connecticut it was not safe to be an abolitionist then. Only a short time before, Prudence Crandall had been driven out of Canterbury for "opening a school for young misses of color." [3] The school, which was at first opened as a day school, was distrusted, the minister thundered against him from the pulpit, the church excommunicated him, and, after marrying one of the young ladies of the place, he felt obliged to leave and taught school for a year or two with United States Senator O. H. Platt, at Towanda, Penn. In 1847 he returned to Washington and reopened the Gunnery, which has ever since been successful. The prejudice against anti-slavery was passing away and the prominent abolitionists remembered a fellow-worker and aided him by sending their children to his school, so that the sons of Henry Ward Beecher, Mrs. Stowe, and Gen. John C. Fremont found instruction there.

[1] Letter of Rev. W. G. Andrews, D. D., May, 1893.

[2] Cothren's History of Ancient Woodbury; Holland, Arthur Bonnicastle; Gibson, Pastoral Days; Litchfield Enquirer, September 8, 1881, and October 11, 1883, Memorial Volume; New York Evening Post, August 1881; "The Master of the Gunnery;" memorial volume to F. W. Gunn.

[3] A full account of this incident is given in the author's "History of Slavery in Connecticut," published in the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, for 1893.

stem of discipline was unique and formed a marked
chool. It was based on two principles, I quote his
oy must learn to know the right, to love it, to dare to
'if you would get into a boy's heart, you must get the
you." As a result of this, said Senator Platt, "his
im as few men are ever loved." Some instances of his
discipline are worthy of note. Boys found with their
rouser pockets lost their pie at dinner. Those who
noise were ordered to take a horn to the village green
at the four corners of the church, to hug a tree for
take a 3-mile walk in the moon-light. A youth who
might have a chip put in his mouth, to be kept there
Two boys who had quarreled were ordered to sit in
by turns for an hour or two. "A little boy, caught
as seized by the seat of the breeches and nape of the
d in after the cat to be shown how it feels." Boys who
ve indulged in drink or smoking were given an emetic.
mples of the original methods of punishment he in-
n the other hand, he left unpunished many things usu-
punishment.

for training boys had for its central objects manhood, character,
h these secured he believed that mental growth would follow, or,
em mental growth was good for nothing. He sedulously culti-
e honorable side of boy nature.

, the general standard of the school was unquestionably low.
ng system and no direct incentives to purely intellectual growth.
and last, fitted a good many boys for college and most of them
ry for teaching the dead languages was to "learn the language
ar afterwards." So a boy often found himself in Homer before
e simplest form of a Greek verb, and reading four hundred lines
hout a question on the syntax or prosody. In composition, rhet-
he standard of the school was high, and a knowledge of public
nost a compulsory part of the course—Mr. Gunn himself reading
d to the school as soon as the afternoon mail brought it in.

s a worthy helpmate for her husband and was a mother
oys there. An old pupil writes that his memory often
unn building, a vine embowered puzzle of architecture;
mes, in which the teacher so often measured his length
sh in collision with some muscular rival; to the coast-
the tramps with rod and gun, all encouraged and even
of the scheme of training; to the ball nine, on which
f played an efficient first base; to the 'family meeting'
ay afternoon, when the household of forty boys was
e an account of the week's peccadilloes; to the 'recep-
on Friday evenings with its dancing and games, when
sent, for the teacher regarded nothing as more eleva-
than the companionship of pure-minded girls."

Mr. Gunn died in the summer of 1881, and a year later, on October 4, 1882, a monument was unveiled to him in Washington. Conn. Senator Platt presided and made an address. The other speakers were Mr. Clarence Deming, of Litchfield, and Mr. Edward Willes, of Towanda, Pa., who had been his pupils, the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, and Mr. J. C. Brinsmade. From these addresses we gain an idea of the character of Mr. Gunn:

Mere scholastic culture was with him secondary to self-reliance, pure morals, manhood, and that human quality expressed by what I conceive to be almost the strongest word in the English language, character.

Mr. Gunn was not a formally religious man. He belonged, I think, to no ecclesiastical society; certainly he rendered open allegiance to no sect. Yet, how that strenuous and exemplary life of his shames the daily record of many men whom the world calls religious.

We had a school teacher, a real one. I do not know that there is anything on earth that is more noble than that.

His was the nature that could take children up into his arms and carry them by his methods safely through the perilous period, setting them the example of a solid man, a man of faith, of intellect, and manhood. He interested them and induced them to come to him for advice.

I never knew a man in whom the intellectual, the moral, and the emotional nature were so harmoniously and subtly blended as in Mr. Gunn, nor one who had more moral courage to defend the truth and oppose the wrong.

A year later, in 1883, the new Gunn building was opened with addresses from Mr. W. H. Gibson and Dr. James O. Murray, of Princeton. For many years Mr. Gunn held an encampment on Lake Waremaug, near New Preston, during the summer months, and some of the boys were always with him there.

The school buildings are upon the southern slope of the village hill. The main building is of three stories and is used for the home of teachers and pupils. The school building is about 100 feet south of the main building and is two stories high, the upper one being occupied by a large hall. A new gymnasium, with two bowling alleys, was opened in the fall of 1889. The grounds are about 20 acres in extent, of which about one-half is occupied by an open field and grove devoted to playgrounds.

Students are prepared for college or scientific school and for business life. The prominence given to composition, oratory, and the knowledge of current affairs is as marked as ever and instruction is given, if desired, in music, painting, drawing, and dancing.

The boys publish a paper called Stray Shot, and the Friday evening reception is still kept up. Boys are taken from 8 years of age and upwards, while those applying for admission, if over 15 years of age, must furnish certificates of good character.

The school is now under the management of Mr. J. C. Brinsmade, to whom the author is indebted for much of the material for this sketch.

THE RECTORY SCHOOL, HAMDEN.[1]

School was established at Hamden, near New Haven, continued in 1873. The rector of Grace Church, Hamles William Everest (Trinity College, 1838), began by oys into his family, in order to eke out an inadequate pupils were almost immediately offered, and the school d between 60 and 70, with six resident masters. It is been the second institution of the kind in New Eng- military drill. The pupils were taught order and xtensive system of rules, rigidly enforced. Obedience as diligence in study, was secured by the old-fashioned pupils were faithfully instructed in the care of their y of them were largely indebted to the Rectory School t of fine health in later years. The general success of peared, for example, in the total absence from all parts nent of anything offensive due to them, in their invari- behavior, not only to their teachers, but to all visitors, that no contagious disease, it was said, ever passed school premises, in either direction.

n was thorough. The rector himself taught the begin- d Latin, and by his demand of faultless accuracy laid exact scholarship. First-honor men at Columbia and sewhere, attested the excellent preparatory work done mong the nearly 600 boys who were taught there were since been honorably known in the learned professions, the Army and Navy, in business and in public life. member of Congress (one highly distinguished) were The steady growth of the school for a quarter of a cen- the system pursued, in spite of features to which many l results which satisfied those most interested.

indication of the character of the institution is seen in less than ten of the pupils returned to it as teachers. to the presence of a strong and winning personal influ- rest was a really remarkable man. He combined a acity of purpose, and a frequent vehemence of feeling with a singular simplicity and openness of mind. He tense scorn for all that was mean and cowardly, and e sometimes terribly severe, but he delighted in every- elds harmless pleasure. He had a true love of the ly sense of humor, and was never happier than in being sential nobility of his character often inspired an attach- w with advancing years, so that those who had feared d him as men. His teachers were, as a rule, the warm- s, and gave him confidence as well as affection even

[1] liam G. Andrews, D. D., a former teacher in the Rectory School.

when, at times, they may have felt obliged to disapprove his judgment or regret his action. One aspect of his nature is illustrated by his fondness for poetry, and among the pleasantest memories of Hamden, both for pupils and teachers, are those of the readings which he gave from his favorite authors. In his early years he himself wrote graceful and mellifluous verse, though he is probably best known in literature as the editor of The Poets of Connecticut, published in 1843.

The value in education, above all on the moral side, of personal influence is well understood. This can never involve the exhibition of a faultless model for imitation, while it perhaps never acts more vigorously or beneficently than through the contact of the young with a strong soul, resolutely, yet humbly, striving after the highest good. And observers at Hamden could frequently watch there the development of a type of character, manly, modest, generous, and sincere, such as perhaps best interprets the phrase "Christian gentleman."

Untoward circumstances, for which the system pursued at the school appears to have been in no way responsible, and some of which were beyond all human control, compelled Mr. Everest to close the institution in 1873. In the words of one who knew the situation perfectly, "it was a bitter disappointment to him to see such a grand enterprise issuing in defeat, and the work of years ruined by inevitable circumstances." His own sterling qualities were never shown more nobly. Turning from the profession of a teacher to which he seemed to have received a genuine vocation, and in which he had felt an honorable pride, he patiently and faithfully performed the tasks now allotted to him, and admirably succeeded at points where he himself had anticipated failure. He died while thus employed, January 11, 1877.

It remains to be said that in 1884 the Rev. H. L. Everest and his brother, Mr. C. S. Everest, opened a new Rectory School in one of the buildings occupied by their father. It began with three pupils, and had in February, 1890, thirty-four pupils and four teachers. It is not a reproduction of the old school, but its good success is due, in no small degree, to training received in that, and to qualities inherited from its founder.

CORNWALL MISSION SCHOOL.[1]

At the meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions in 1816, it was resolved to establish a school for the education of foreign youth in this country. The idea was "to educate heathen youth in such a manner that, with future professional studies, they might be qualified for missionaries, schoolmasters, interpreters, and physicians among heathen nations; and to communicate such information in agriculture and the arts as should tend to promote Christianity and civilization." To carry out this, a farm and suitable buildings

[1] Contrib. for Eccles. Hist. of Conn., p. 160.

ired, and useful branches of education and the leading hristian religion to be taught. A farm was bought at ., and on May 1, 1817, a school was begun with 12 months later, we learn the condition of the school ; 5 of the scholars were from the Sandwich Islands, re hopefully pious and exemplary in their conduct," famous Henry Obookiah. For several following years eriment seems to have been successful, the motley its growing in numbers and favor, being well managed rman Daggett and Amos Bassett.

port was that the "history of its progress is such as to education of heathen youth, and it is hoped that the urs may be greatly increased through the agency of our h extends to all parts of the world." The conduct of s good, their progress commendable.

were 34 pupils, of whom 29 were heathen. They were ed character in age, in speech, in nationality. Repre- there from Sumatra, China, Bengal, Hindostan, Mex- d, the Society, Sandwich, and Marquesas islands, the and the Azores; and of our Indians, members of the aw, Osage, Oneida, Tuscarora, and Seneca tribes, and tribe in Canada. The school now became the object dice, partly on account of the marriage of two or three ith respectable young ladies in the neighborhood. The ontinuance was discussed in 1825, and, two years later, , inasmuch as the students could be educated better ly at the schools which had been established at the s.

HE CONNECTICUT LITERARY INSTITUTE.

cessful school was incorporated at Suffield, Conn., in aintained a high reputation as a preparatory school. buildings and a beautiful campus.

THE BETTS ACADEMY.

s founded by James Betts in 1838 and is now conducted iam James Betts. It was founded at North Stamford ears was moved to Wilton, Conn. Four years later it d to Stamford, where it is now located. It possesses large lawn of 4 acres for out-door sports, and has r skating in winter on flooded meadow land. More l to physical training than at many schools, and the orough and complete. The school's motto is, "What ll," and it lives up to that motto thoroughly.

OTHER PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES.

From 1836, for a half century, Russell's Collegiate and Commercial Institute at New Haven held high rank, until it was given up on the death of its founder, Gen. William Russell, Yale '35.

Black Hall School at Lyme, has a good record, and others on the Shore Line are the Seabury Institute at Saybrook, incorporated in 1865; the Morgan School at Clinton, the gift of Charles Morgan, incorporated in 1870 and opened two years later; the Mystic Valley English and Classical Institute at Mystic Bridge, opened in 1868 and incorporated in 1880; and the Bulkeley School in New London. This last was endowed by Leonard Bulkeley, who left the bulk of his estate for a free school for boys, to be begun when the principal with added interest should equal $50,000. The school was incorporated in 1850 and opened in 1873.

The Norwalk Military Institute is a very prosperous and successful school. The Yale school at Lakeville and Mr. Taft's school at Watertown are among the more recent private schools of high grade.

ROMAN CATHOLIC INSTITUTIONS.

Until lately so few of this faith were in Connecticut, that the Roman Catholic schools are of recent date. But, for the past thirty or forty years, the immigration of Roman Catholics from Ireland and Canada has been so great that several large schools have been founded. Among these are the Academy of the Holy Family, begun in 1874 at Baltic, which is co-educational; the Seminary of Mount St. Joseph, at Hartford, incorporated in 1873; and the Congregation de Notre Dame, at Waterbury, opened in 1869.

THE STORRS AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.

This school was founded at Mansfield and chartered in 1881. It is intended "for the education of Connecticut boys in such branches of science as may conduce to skill in agricultural pursuits." It has a two-years' course "in general and agricultural chemistry, farm mechanics, land surveying, botany, zoölogy, animal physiology, practical and theoretical agriculture," etc. It receives part of the income from the land grant, an act having been passed by the Legislature in 1893 taking it away from the Sheffield Scientific School.

FEMALE EDUCATION.

At the time the Litchfield Law School flourished, there was a most successful girls' school on Litchfield Hill. It was conducted by Miss Sarah Pierce, and for years was preëminent. It was begun in 1792 and lived for nearly forty years, having within its walls over 1,500 pupils. The building in which it was held has since been demolished

ains of this school, which is claimed to have been the
d States for the higher education of women.[1]
st prominent schools for the secondary education of
Golden Hill Seminary at Bridgeport, the Windsor
y, and St. Margaret's Diocesan School for Girls at
porated in 1875 and conducted by the Rev. F. T. Rus-
no longer in existence, one of the most famous was
ew Haven, which, under Miss Mary Dutton, had a wide
ister of ex-President Porter was for many years head
boarding school at Farmington, Conn. The school is
and employs the services of an excellent corps of
cial lecturers.

's, LIV, 514. Litchfield Hill, by J. D. Champlin, jr.

CHAPTER V.

YALE UNIVERSITY.

SECTION I.—FOUNDING AND EARLY YEARS UP TO REMOVAL TO NEW HAVEN.

PREPARATION FOR A COLLEGE.[1]

We have seen how New Haven's attempt to found a college in the early years failed, though hope that a college would come some day seems never to have deserted the lion-hearted Davenport. But the time had not yet come. First, the people were crushed by their unsuccessful struggle with Connecticut; then Davenport died; next, King Phillip's war exhausted the resources of the little colony; after that came the tyranny of Andros; and last, William and Mary's war. But a time for rest came in 1697 with the peace of Ryswick, and the colony had a chance to recover. The tradition of the college that was to have been founded lingered in New Haven, and when John Pierpont came to preach there and married Davenport's daughter, he took up the project and went into it with all the zeal possible. He was a man of far-reaching views, settled among a people of far more than average intelligence. Though the population of the town was less than one thousand, it had sent one man in every thirty of the Harvard graduates up to that date, while from the whole State one-eighth of the Harvard men had come. Pierpont soon associated with him two others, Rev. Mr. Andrew, of Milford, and Rev. Mr. Russel, of Branford, both in the old New Haven Colony, and these three went to work to establish a college. They had many difficulties. The population of the colony in thirty-four towns numbered not over 15,000, and these were not wealthy, but were chiefly small farmers. The distance and expense of sending boys to Harvard were among the chief reasons for founding another college, though the suspicion of a looseness[2] in Harvard's religious tenets undoubtedly moved men somewhat. Having been graduated themselves at Harvard, the projectors of this enterprise naturally enough asked for advice from Massachusetts, and from thence came a letter addressed to them by Cotton Mather.[3] This contained a plan for

[1] The illustrations of Yale buildings are made from photographs taken especially for this work and kindly presented by Edward F. Ayres, Yale College, 1888.

[2] Quincy Hist. Harvard University, I, 198.

[3] Woolsley's Hist. Discourse, 1850, pp. 83–86.

e churches," which was not adopted to any great extent, that the college should be founded through the means of churches—a plan not acceptable.

, the General Court[1] voted to hold its next session in thing which had not been done since New Haven had e capital of a separate State. This was received with noters of the college. They immediately set to work.[2] erpont, of New Haven; Rev. Abraham Pierson, of Kil- v. Israel Chauncy, of Stratford; Rev. Thomas Bucking- ook; and Rev. Gurdon Saltonstall, of New London, ad- r to Secretary Addington and Judge Sewall, of Massa- ugust 7, asking for their advice and for a draft for a also, either then or a little later, sent instructions as to of the charter should contain.[3] Whether Connecticut charter was uncertain. Being itself a chartered body, g so be a stretch of power without warrant? Harvard rter sometime since and had made several unsuccessful tain another; and William and Mary, the only other country, had obtained its charter from the monarchs bore. But Sewall and Addington answered favorably, the Connecticut people.[4] As good orthodox men they uld be very glad to hear of flourishing schools and a col- ticut, and it would be some relief to us against the sor- nceived for the decay of them in this province. And ll learning is to fit men to search the Scriptures, we but you will oblige the rector to expound the Scrip- y morning and evening." The draft for a charter was pted, except that the founders wisely struck out all refer- save in the preamble.[5]

consulted on the subject; Gershom Bulkeley, of Weth- red unfavorably, but Increase Mather wrote aiding them, mberly, Secretary of the Colony, and John Eliot, a young dsor, gave opinions that a charter would be valid. The to erect such a school is neither repugnant to the laws r an encroachment on the King's prerogative. No act ng to my sense of the matter) in any of the Plantations e repugnant to the laws of England, unless it be con- of the Parliament of England, wherein such plantation evidently intended, and I know of no act of Parliament ch a school may not be erected in the Plantations." sent in the last of September to Mr. Pierson at Bran-

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le Annals, 1.

s, 2.

nding of Yale College, New Haven Col. Hist. Soc. Colls., 5.

Hist. Soc. Colls. Eccles. Const. of Yale College, 407.

of Yale College, 7.

HOPKINS GRAMMAR SCHOOL, NEW HAVEN.

ART SCHOOL AND RECTOR PIERSON'S STATUE—YALE UNIVERSITY.

ford[1], and it may have been that he was there together with the other ministers, deliberating at that famous meeting, to which each brought a few folios from his own library, and, laying them on Mr. Russell's table, said solemnly, "I give these books for the founding a college in this colony."[2] Thus humbly was Yale College begun, to broaden and widen, till it comes to-day nearer to being a National University than any other, drawing its students from the most widely separated parts of the country.

THE CHARTER.

On October 9 the legislature came together, and to it came the clergymen, on whose hearts lay the project of a college. They presented in due form a petition and a draft of a charter. Their aims were well expressed in the preamble of the charter as granted:

> Several well disposed and Publick spirited Persons, of their sincere Regard to & zeal for upholding & Propagating of the Christian Protestant Religion by a succession of Learned & Orthodox men, have expressed by Petition their earnest desires that full Liberty and Priveledge be granted unto certain Undertakers for the founding, suitably endowing, & ordering a Collegiate School within his Maj^ties Colony of Connecticut, wherein Youth may be instructed in the Arts & Sciences, who through the blessing of Almighty God may be fitted for Public employment both in Church and Civil State.

Who signed the petition is unknown, nor is it extant; but the purposes breathe a broad and generous spirit. This college was not founded, as many suppose, to be solely a theological school; but Pierpont and his associates bore along the thought of Davenport and remembered his idea of education was "the better training up of youth, that, through God's blessing, they may be fitted for public service hereafter either in church or commonwealth." The question which they faced then, as it must be faced to day, was "how to make the best men of their graduates?" and, through the energy and faithfulness of men like these, we can say to-day that

> It has been the glory of the American college that it has kept close to this view of its functions. Its curriculum has had this in view and, in its philosophical breadth, soundness, and completeness, has stood in marked contrast with the pedagogic, technical, and artificial limitations of the German gymnasia.

By their zeal these "Congregational Clergymen of Connecticut" interested Major James Fitch,[3] one of the assistants, and on October 16, he promised to give the inchoate college[4] some 637 acres of wild land in Killingly,[5] a remote part of the colony, and to furnish with-

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[1] Yale Annals, 2.

[2] A list, only partially correct, of these books was made out by President Stiles in 1784 and published in the University Quarterly, II, 245.

[3] Dexter, Yale Annals, 12.

[4] Founding of Yale College, 17.

[5] Afterwards exchanged for lands in Salisbury. Before the exchange, the title to them was disputed by Messrs. Fisk & Leavens, and a troublesome lawsuit resulted. Conn. Rec., VI, 372, 446. Yale Annals, 260.

ss and nails for the college house. On that very
Connecticut granted this first college charter. It is a
; the very name of the act is, not to found, but "to
e School,"[1] as if it had been founded before. Sewall
had written, "We on purpose gave your academy as
we could, that it might better stand in wind and
so it was to be merely a collegiate school, not a college.
charter we see instances of this wariness and fear of
powers of the colony. The presiding officer is a rector,
the assistants are tutors or ushers, instead of fellows;
e spoken of as "degrees or Licences;" and of Black-
ntial characteristics of a corporation, one at least, to
seal, was entirely lacking. By the charter, ten clergy-
nted "Trustees, Partners, or Undertakers for the said
were Mr. James Noyes, of Stonington; Mr. Israel
ratford; Mr. Thomas Buckingham, of Saybrook; Mr.
on, of Killingworth; Mr. Samuel Mather, of Windsor;
drew, of Milford; Mr. Timothy Woodbridge, of Hart-
s Pierpont, of New Haven; Mr. Noadiah Russel, of
d Mr. Joseph Webb, of Fairfield. It was as representa-
could be gotten together. All were clergymen; but
little learning outside of that order, and the fiction of
ling was thus best kept up, for all of those previously
were of that profession.[2] They, as a whole, were the
rgy, from the most prominent towns, and quite evenly
ng the different parts of the colony, though seven of
om the seashore towns. There was no location men-
roposed school; but they were "to erect, form, direct,
improve, and att all times, in all suitable ways, for
courage the sd. School" "and to employ the moneys or
for the benefit of sd. Collegiate School." The number
o be not over eleven, nor under seven, and they were
of the gospel, inhabiting within this Colony, and above
years." Over the school they had "the oversight,
Right, Liberty, power, & Priviledge to furnish, direct,
improve, & encourage from time to time." They might
led the income from it were not over £500 a year, "and
tels, Sum, or Sums of Money," which they should re-
source. These they might sue for and recover, and
to support and pay the rector and tutors, "As also,
ement of the Students, to grant degrees or Licenses,
cause to order and appoint." The Colony gave them
y, worth about £60 sterling, as an annual grant, "until
otherwise."

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iv, 363.

[1] Founding of Yale College, 13.

ORGANIZING THE COLLEGIATE SCHOOL

On November 11 seven of the trustees met at Saybrook. They fixed the College there temporarily, as being most convenient for both the river and seacoast towns, in one class or the other of which most of the colony was comprised. They cast a complimentary vote for Mr. Chauncey, the eldest of their number, as rector, and on his declining chose Abraham Pierson, pastor at Killingworth. They also chose Rev. Samuel Russell, of Branford, as the eleventh trustee and made several rules. They resolved "to order and appoint, that there shall be, and hereby is, erected and formed a Collegiate School, wherein shall be taught the liberal arts and languages."[1] The rector is to ground well the students in theoretical divinity and have them recite weekly, from memory, the Assembly's Catechism in Latin and Ames' Theological Theses, "of which, as also Ames' Cases of Conscience, he shall make, or cause to be made, from time to time, such explanations as may (through the blessing of God) be most conducive to their establishment in the principles of the Christian Protestant religion." Other rules were made: the rector and tutors were to hold office during good behavior; for expulsion of students the consent of the trustees was necessary, and the rector, "with such neighboring ministers as he could obtain," should examine those desiring to enter, "and, finding them duly prepared and expert in Latin and Greek authors, both poetic and oratorical, as also ready in making good Latin, shall grant them admission."[2]

Tuition was to be 30 shillings annually for undergraduates and 10 shillings for graduates. For the present the degree of Batchelor of Arts was given for three years study, though a four-year course was intended as soon as possible. After three years more of study the degree of Master of Arts was to be given.

The rules of Harvard were to be used to supply deficiencies in those already made.[3] Indeed, of the first trustees, all were Harvard graduates but one, and he had received his education at the New Haven Hopkins Grammar School. They wished to make this college for Connecticut what their *alma mater* had been for Massachusetts, though they were hopeful of drawing students from that "neighboring province." It is often claimed that they wished merely to found a theological school; but having the above-mentioned fact in mind, and reading carefully the preamble to the charter, we shall see that this is much too narrow a view. They wished to fit youth "for public employment, both in church and civil state," and they did so. That it was not a theological school is shown by the fact that even of those who in the very earliest period went forth as ministers of the gospel only one did so without subsequent preparation.[4] It was a place for the training of clergy, but also of laymen.

[1] Eccles. Const. of Yale College, 409.
[2] Founding of Yale College, 18.
[3] Founding of Yale College, 20.
[4] Founding of Yale College, 22-27.

ST SCHOLAR AND THE FIRST COMMENCEMENT.

inter little was done, but in March, 1702, Jacob Hemin-
from East Haven as a freshman. He lived in Rector
, in Killingworth, where indeed was the headquarters
ll the rector's death, "and *solus* was all the College the

e trustees had another meeting, when Rev. Mr. Pierson
icial acceptance, as "he durst not refuse such a service
generation."[2] They granted him £20 for his "hitherto
"work for the present in his hand." They also desired
Saybrook, which his congregation would not hear of,
him "entertainment" if he went to Saybrook before

Mr. Nathaniel Lynde offered the college a small house
near the old burying ground in Saybrook, as long as
ld remain there, and thither the rector, trustees, tutors,
grated yearly for commencements, the College staying
(now Clinton) the rest of the year. In this month
e to Yale from Harvard, and a prospect of other stu-
the trustees to employ the first tutor. He was Daniel
g Harvard graduate, and received £50, "country pay
sides the tuition money already ordered." Rector Pier-
fixed at £120, as soon as he should remove to Say-
n arrangements for commencement were made. "The
r Government, ministry of the Colony, Benefactors to
all other persons of liberal education, with the parents
f the candidates," might attend the august occasions;
abble were shut out.[3]
16, in the house of the Rev. Mr. Buckingham, of Say-
the first commencement of the Collegiate School. Four
lors[4] came forward, were examined, and granted the
, and one man, Nathaniel Chauncey, who had studied
his uncle, presented himself as a candidate for the
e. The old tradition runs: on examination he showed
and such thorough training that the trustees, struck
t, gave him not only what he asked, but the master's
so to-day he heads the list of Yale graduates.[5]

ERSON AND HIS ADMINISTRATION. (1701–1707.)

es Morgan offered to erect a statue of the first rector
campus in New Haven, and no representation of him
, so an ideal one had to be made.[6] His successor,

23.
6.
7.

[4] Yale Annals, 9.
[5] Yale Annals, 10.
[6] Kingsley's Yale Book, 1, 29.

President Clap, says of him: "He was a hard student, a good scholar, a great divine, and a wise, steady, and judicious gentleman. He instructed and governed the infant college with general approbation." In 1868 a monument, 18 feet high, was erected in Clinton (the old Killingworth) to commemorate the spot where Yale began; but the best monument is the college itself. Pierson was born in 1645 and was graduated at Harvard in 1668. The rector took it upon himself to prepare a system of physics for the infant institution. This was probably little more than a working over of his old collegiate notebooks, and while it is scarcely true that he taught the Ptolemaic theory of the universe, he probably had not advanced so far as to accept the Newtonian, if, indeed, he had yet heard of it. His presidency was one long struggle between the trustees, who wished to have him remove to Saybrook, and his own people, who wished to keep him and to have him give up the college, till death solved the problem on March 5, 1707.[1]

During his rule the collegiate school prospered in a quiet way in spite of the war that was raging with the Indians and French. In 1703, John Hart, the first actual student who graduated, was the whole class, and was at once made tutor. During the year the students increased to some ten or eleven, and the legislature, in October, freed the students from taxes and military service.[2] At the same session it permitted the college to send through the Colony a "brief," or authorized appeal for money, "for procuring and upholding a tutor and for further promoting of the school, by building or otherwise."[3] In 1704 three graduated; £100 "county pay" was offered Rector Pierson if he would remove to Saybrook, to defray the expenses of the removal; and a system of fines was made "for the preventing of irreligion, idleness, and other immoralities."[4] In 1706 the college graduated two men who demand a passing mention. Jonathan Dickinson, the first president of the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, and the first also of that long line of college presidents to come from Yale, and Jared Eliot, physician and clergyman, successor of Rector Pierson in his pastorate, correspondent of Franklin, and in 1756 unanimously chosen Fellow of the Royal Society. In all, fourteen graduated while Rector Pierson lived.[5]

THE COLLEGIATE SCHOOL AT SAYBROOK—RECTOR, SAMUEL ANDREW (1707–1719).

After Rector Pierson's death the trustees chose Rev. Samuel Andrew (1707–1719), one of their own number, as rector. He was pastor at Milford and thither the seniors went to finish their instruction with him, while the two lower classes stayed at Saybrook, at first with one and

[1] Yale Annals, 59–64.
[2] R. D. Smyth, College Courant, 1868. Conn. Rec., IV, 440.
[3] Conn. Rec., IV, 454.
[4] Yale Annals, 18.
[5] R. D. Smyth, College Courant. Yale Annals, 45–58.

tors.[1] The library was brought to Saybrook and corresponding with the tutors during the year, came e" at commencement. This left things in worse case collegiate school was now in two sections, 40 miles rew was probably chosen rector partly from the ex- gained in teaching at Harvard from 1679 to 1684. (He in 1675.)

THE SAYBROOK PLATFORM.[2]

1707, Rev. Gurdon Saltonstall was chosen governor. n favor of the adoption of a platform for church govern- ld be midway between the "strict Congregationalism" s and the Presbyterianism of the Middle States.[3] ence a "meeting of pastors and lay messengers" oc- ok at the college commencement. Twelve ministers ne of these were among the trustees, so that the synod e than a meeting of that body under another name. 'confession of faith, heads of agreement, and articles ich were accepted and have governed the "consociated ecticut" till this day. Nay, more than this, it is even ians that this platform largely influenced the delibera- athers in forming the Federal Constitution.[4] To the n contained therein all officers and trustees of the col- d to consent for many years; indeed, till some time in his century. Then all tests were removed, probably ce of the founding of another college in the State.

EARLY GIFTS.

1710 to 1713, drained the colony of money and caused exceedingly small; but, in spite of this, the friends the state to increase its grant.[5] In October, 1712, an iving "£100 in money or bills of credit of this Colony," argement of about 25 per cent over the old grant.[6] standing boundary dispute between Massachusetts was settled by the granting to Connecticut of 105,793 ls in the western part of Massachusetts. Here was a lony to aid the college, which Governor Saltonstall, its was quick to see; and when the general assembly met

torical Address" in Contributions to Eccles. Hist. of Conn., pp.
ist. of Conn., i, 504-515.
he trustees in Guilford in 1703 something of the sort had been

f U. S.
ic.
ecticut, i, 471.

and ordered the land to be sold, £500 of the purchase money was appropriated "to the trustees of the collegiate school for the building of a college house."[1]

The sale took place in the next spring (1716), and the land was sold for £683, equal to $2,274 in our currency, a ludicrously low price even for those days.

Private beneficence had also aided the infant college. Jeremiah Dummer, appointed agent in England for the colony in 1712, was appealed to at once by the zealous Pierpont to aid the collegiate school.[2] Two years later, "by the bountiful and liberal donation of divers well-spirited gentlemen in Brittain, procured by Mr. Jeremiah Dummer, agent for this colony, we had a very valuable and considerable library of choice books sent to us." Nine boxes of them came in the fall of 1714, but these could not have contained all the 700 volumes,[3] a list of which is happily preserved. A remarkable list it is, showing how the great authors of England had been induced to give their works to the struggling college in the far-off plantation. Sir Richard Steele heads the list with his Tatlers and Spectators, and Sir Isaac Newton, Dr. Bentley, Dean Kennet, Mathew Henry, Edmund Calamy, and Sir Richard Blackmore (the poet-laureate, who came "in his own chariot"), all follow. Others gave works not their own, among them Sir Edmund Andross, Sir Francis Nicholson, and Dummer himself, who sent 92 volumes. Governor Yale's name also appears here for the first time, but he has as yet "done very little, considering his estate and particular relation to your colony." Sir John Davie, who had been a New London farmer till he suddenly succeeded to a baronetcy, would not send with Dummer's collection, but soon after forwarded about 200 books, mostly theological, in six boxes. Dummer's collection was very valuable, for, although a little over one-half were on theological subjects, the rest contained many works of history, biography, travels, English literature, and science. The receipt of these books probably induced the two unsuccessful applications to the general assembly for money to build a new college house, which were made within a year.[4]

COURSE OF STUDY.

In 1779 Benjamin Lord, of the class of 1714, wrote to President Stiles, describing the old curriculum. A few sentences are worth copying to show the difference between the old course of study and that pursued to-day:

> Books of the languages and Sciences recited in my Day were Tully and Virgil, but without any notes; Burgersdicius and Ramus's Logick also Heereford's set Logic &c; Pierson's manuscript of Physicks. We recited the Greek Testament; knew not Homer &c; recited the Psalms in Hebrew; the greatest proficient in the Hebrew and in the other Languages also, was Dr. Johnson. We recited Ames'[5] Medulla, on Saturdays, and also his Cases of Conscience; sometimes the two upper classes used to dispute syllogistically twice or thrice a week."

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[1] Conn. Rec., v, 529.
[2] Yale Annals, 109.
[3] Yale Annals, 141.
[4] Yale Annals, 142-144.
[5] A Puritan Chaplain at the Hague (Woolsey), Yale Book ii.

s of most of these writers are forgotten, and yet great
eir full stature with such a training. One of them, of
as the Dr. Samuel Johnson referred to above. He was
in 1696, and after graduation became tutor in the col-
astor at West Haven. Then, going over to the Epis-
went to England for ordination, was made master of
d and Cambridge, and returned to preach at Stratford,
ecome first president of Kings (now Columbia) College
753. He was made a doctor of divinity by Oxford in

study was extended to four years about 1710, or 1711.

DISSATISFACTION WITH SAYBROOK.

ingham, of Saybrook, one of the trustees, kept some
school till his death, in 1709, and then it was left en-
or's care through the year. Rev. Mr. Pierpont, the
1714, and, his powerful influence being removed,
The legislature by its gift for a building led those
ave the school moved to go to work immediately. The
Saybrook inconvenient, as some of them had to live
college.[2] The tutors were young and inexperienced.
emselves were not a unit as to the location; some
it at Saybrook, some to move it to New Haven, and
to Hartford or Wethersfield. The last party were
iting the discontent of the students. On April 4,
s met and heard the complaints of the students.
terior of the State claimed that it was a hardship for
brook, when they could obtain better advantages nearer
tees finally voted to call a resident rector, to build,
seniors to finish their course wherever they desired.
intentionally misconstrued and "many of the students
respective homes, and where they might have instruc-
ls, a considerable number of them gathering at Weth-
was the Rev. Elisha Williams, a young Harvard
bly recommended to the dissatisfied students by the
tees. At the May session of the legislature, a petition
these two and two more Hartford men "in the name
It laments "the present declining and unhappy cir-
ich that school lies, and the apparent hazard of its
tinguisht, unless some speedy remedy be apply'd."
states that, "as the want of money has always been
continuing so long in an unsettled posture, it has

was the first doctorate won by Yale's graduates.
s Annals, 16.
hull's Conn., ii, 23.
Annals, 148.

been proposed to the people of this town (Hartford) to signify, by their subscriptions, what they are willing to contribute on this occasion." They state that the people of Hartford have "advanc't such sums as, by a due improvement, may hopefully put said school into a flourishing condition," and ask to have it transferred thither. Further on, they state the sum subscribed as between six and seven hundred pounds, and that they hope to increase it to over a thousand. As to Hartford's advantages, they cite that it is "more in the center of the colony; is surrounded with many considerable towns, upon which account it may easily be supposed that the number of students will be much greater than if it were at any other place, which has not the like situation; several persons of distinction in the neighboring province have assured us," not only to aid with money, "but also that they will send their youth hither for their education;" and lastly, "they have a fair prospect of having the school supply'd with able and sufficient tutors."[1] As the assembly had no power over the trustees, this could only have been to obtain the legislature's opinion, and that body summoned the trustees to appear the next Wednesday to "show the difficulties and what may by them be thought expedient to be done therein."[2] These two Hartford trustees had agreed to the votes at Saybrook two weeks before, so that their present conduct was "unaccountable" and "caused a mighty commotion." Six trustees came to the general assembly; of the rest, one was bedridden, the others said the summons was illegal. The six present induced the assembly to wait till October, promising them that if they had not "universally agreed on a place for the college by the next commencement, they would let the legislature name one."[3] A few students staid at Saybrook till the smallpox broke out, and then they moved to East Guilford (now Madison) with the single tutor who still remained of the faculty, and studied with him and Rev. John Hart (class of 1703) till commencement.[4]

THE COLLEGE RENT IN TWAIN—NEW HAVEN AND WETHERSFIELD.

At commencement, September 12, 1716, seven trustees met, and, after trying to unite on Saybrook, finally voted, five to two, to move to New Haven rather than Hartford, and then adjourned to meet in New Haven the day before the general assembly met. Meanwhile the towns endeavored to raise money so as to obtain the college. Johnson, in his invaluable manuscript history of the college, says Saybrook raised £1,200 or £1,400; "Hartford endeavored, but could make no hand of getting money, at least not so much as they could think worth the mentioning;" New Haven subscribed £1,500 or £2,000. The proprietors of the undivided lands in New Haven granted, on July 30, 8 acres "to the school if it comes here," and on December 24 the same amount ad-

[1] Connecticut Records, v, 550.
[2] Connecticut Records, v, 551.
[3] Yale Annals, 150.
[4] Trumbull's Conn., ii, 23.

rkshire quarter."[1] At the October meeting of the trus-
that, considering the difficulties of continuing the col-
Saybrook, and that New Haven is a convenient place
he most liberal donations are given, the trustees agree
id school from Saybrook to New Haven, and it is now
aven accordingly." Five voted aye; the two up-river
th preferred it should stay at Saybrook, but if it must
ew Haven in preference to Hartford.[2] There was one
oard, one of the two absentees was bedridden and in
ood, but could not be removed owing to an imperfection
d the remaining one added his approval to the vote in
ber.

ad been in the treasury, and with that and the money
lent lands" granted by the Colony they determined to
d a rector's house at New Haven. The governor and
were to be asked "concerning the architectonick part
" and new tutors were appointed.[3] The East Guilford
o New Haven, but the Wethersfield ones obstinately
. Elisha Williams, and three or four still tarried at
r. Azariah Mather, the minister there.

saw preparations for the college hall begin; but the
re not idle. In December, at town meeting, the depu-
ted to "offer a remonstrance against the settlement of
ool at New Haven." Their grounds of complaint were
of Hartford and New London, being more populous
vo, paying most of the cost of the college, and having
atest number of students, "had reason to expect that
place of the school, good respect should be had to
was drawn up to this, probably by Governor Law,
on after. It recites some of New Haven's advantages,
e "Western Governments," and hence likely to draw
as New York and New Jersey had no colleges; as hav-
ore money; and, as on the seacoast, being more easy
l parts than inland Hartford.[5]

in April, the trustees met again in New Haven, the
n being absent, and voted to place the college building
lot, which had been bequeathed by her to the New
In September this lot was sold to the college for £26,
ich, as these were at 59 per cent discount, was merely
This was the beginning of the Yale campus, and is
ned fence corner was and the new Osborn recitation

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als, 159.
's Conn., ii, 24.
als, 160.
[4] Yale Annals, 161.
[5] Yale Annals, 162.

In May, Rev. Mr. Woodbridge, of Hartford, again asked the assembly to fix a place for the college. The lower house voted "to have it settled in some place at or near Connecticut River;" but the upper house refused to concur.

The split widened. At commencement in New Haven, Rector Andrew presided, and four graduated;[1] but the dissatisfied party also had a commencement at Wethersfield, and Mr. Woodbridge gave one man a degree there.[2]

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE COLLEGE.

The legislature met on October 10; but two days before, the trustees, to hasten matters, had raised the frame of the college house, inviting a master carpenter of reputation from Boston to superintend the building.[3] After the general assembly came together it summoned the trustees before it, at the instigation of the Hartford party, and nine of them appeared. Six of these drew up a memorial showing their reasons for moving the college. The Hartford party claimed the votes for moving were illegal. The New Haven men answered this, and the question came up on October 24 for a vote.[4] The upper house, under Saltonstall's influence, resolved "that the objections against the vote of the trustees were insufficient."[5] The lower house, putting the question of location to vote, gave their voice for Middletown, a place halfway between the contending points, by a vote of 35 to 32, and 6 for Saybrook. As the two houses disagreed, the trustees begged to be allowed to present their case before a joint meeting, which took place October 26. Tutor Johnson, who was probably present, left an account of it. He states:

> The Upper House, all as one man, agreed that they would advise the Trustees settling the School at New Haven to go on with it, esteeming their cause just and good, and they sent it down to the Lower House, where there were great throes and pangs and controversy and mighty strugglings; at length they put it to a vote and there were six more (36 to 30) for the side of New Haven than the contrary; the major part thus joining with the Upper House to advise the Revd. Trustees to go forward with the College at New Haven. And thus at length the up-river party had their will, in having the School settled by the General Court, though sorely against their will, at New Haven, but many owned themselves fairly beat.[6]

Not all did so, for the agitation was still to continue. The legislature voted to divide its yearly grant among the several instructors at Wethersfield, New Haven, and Saybrook, "according to the number of scholars taught by them."[7] The trustees now invited the Weth-

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[1] The grandiloquent salutatory of George Griswold, pronounced then, is the earliest extant document of the kind. Part of it is printed in Magazine of American History, XI, 143.

[2] Yale Annals, 163.

[3] Chandler's Life of S. Johnson, 13.

[4] Yale Annals, 174.

[5] Trumbull's Connecticut, II, 26.

[6] Yale Annals, 175; Connecticut Record, VI, 30–38.

[7] Connecticut Records, V, 38.

ts to come down, chose their instructor, Mr. Smith, a
e a letter to Mr. Dummer, describing their "splendid
e," which was to be "in length 10 rods, in breadth 21
near 30 foot upright," and to contain a "spacious hall
spacious library."[1] He answered the letter, in a substan-
ding over 76 volumes the next spring. The Wethers-
not give up at once; they encouraged the students to
om New Haven and, when the general assembly met at
y, they induced the lower house to vote that the college
d somewhere near Connecticut River, and that it be rec-
he reverend trustees that the commencements be, inter-
year at Wethersfield and one at New Haven."[2] But
ner measures against the trustees, was not acquiesced
er house. On September 12, 1718, the "dissatisfied
ommencement at Wethersfield. Five graduated there,
Woodbridge, presiding, gave them certificates, signed
other ministers present, that they were worthy of the
elor of arts.[3]

GOVERNOR ELIHU YALE.

he commencement this year, came news from England
college firmly at New Haven and gave it the name it

eophilus Eaton married, as a second wife, Anne, the
l Yale, of Wales, and brought his stepson, David Yale,
he settled New Haven.[4] A sister of young Yale mar-
Edward Hopkins, whose beneficence we have already
David was not suited with New Haven and, about
Boston and settled there as a merchant. A son, whom
n,[5] was born to him on April 5, 1649. While the
few years old his father went back to England and
The boy grew up and, when about 21, went to Madras,
his fortune as a merchant. He entered the employ of
Company and worked his way up till he was made gov-
ent of Madras.[6] It was a position which offered endless
or wealth, both legitimate and otherwise, and it would
used them all. He was a man unscrupulous in con-
morality, yet even then he was recognized as philan-
company desired him "to set on foot *another* generous,

nnals, 175.
ticut Records, vi, 30. Trumbull's Connecticut, ii, 27.
ull's Connecticut, ii 27.
's Governor E. Yale, 227. N. H. Col. Hist. Soc. Colls.
or E. Yale, 228.
or E. Yale, 234.

charitable, work."[1] He married and had three daughters and an only son, who died young. Finally, on account of various charges, he was recalled in 1692. He returned to England enormously wealthy. In May, 1711, Dummer writes Rev. Mr. Pierpont that Governor Yale is sending to New Haven for a nephew to make him his heir. He adds: "He told me lately that he intended to bestow a charity upon some college in Oxford. But I think he should rather do it to your college, seeing he is a New England and, I think, a Connecticut man."[2] This is our first reference to Yale in this connection, and we have seen how Dummer, following up his own suggestion, obtained books from him.

This wondrous building which we have seen the trustees were raising more than drained their resources and, long before they had it ready for the cerulean coat which they gave it, they were at their wits' end. Probably they appealed to Cotton Mather in their distress, for he wrote in their behalf to Governor Yale, January 14, 1718.[3] In this letter the name Yale College appears for the first time. He said:

SIR: Though you have felicities in your family, which I pray God continue and multiply, yet certainly, if what is forming at New Haven might wear the name of YALE COLLEGE, it would be better than a name of sons and daughters; and your munificence might easily obtain for you a commemoration and perpetuation of your valuable name which would indeed be better than an Egyptian pyramid.[4]

The good puritan divine never said truer words. The name of Yale lives, because he heeded this appeal and gave a portion of his immense wealth to the almost despairing college. Dummer was still at work "to get a present from Mr. Yale for the finishing the college," and some of these efforts bore fruit; for, on June 11, Governor Yale sent to Boston three bales of valuable goods to be sold for the college; a portrait of George I, which the college still has; the royal coat of arms,[5] and a case of books. The value of the whole was about £800, of which £562 were received for the sale of goods and used for the hall they were building.[6] It seems small to us in comparison to endowments to-day, but we must remember that the college received no greater gift from an individual for over a century, and that the gift came at a critical time.[7] Without this gift the trustees could not have finished the building at once and every moment of delay would have strengthened the Wethersfield faction.[8] This gift crushed it forever. News of the gift came to New Haven just before commencement.

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[1] Governor E. Yale, 236.
[2] Governor E. Yale, 240.
[3] Governor Yale, 241.
[4] Quincy's Harvard College, I. 524.
[5] Destroyed during the Revolution.
[6] Governor E. Yale, 242.
[7] In 1837 Dr. Alfred E. Perkins gave $10,000 for the library.
[8] Governor E. Yale, 242.

YALE COLLEGE.

of September, 1718, there was a splendid commencement. eputy governor, many of the legislature and of the judges, distinguished throng were there. Lieutenant-Governor , of Massachusetts, to whom the goods had been con- esent at the festivities.[1] The new building was dedi- ed, from the generous donor, Yale College. The sono- iods stand on the records to-day, "Consentimus, sta- namus nostras ædes academicas patroni munificentissimi ri atque Yalense Collegium nominari."[2] Col. Tailer rep- nor Yale in a speech, expressing his great satisfaction. s received diplomas and performed their "Disputations." onstall and Rev. John Davenport (one of the trustees) n orations. "All which ended, the gentlemen all re- llege hall, where they were entertained with a splendid ladies, at the same time, were also entertained in the thing was managed with so much order and splendor of it extremely disheartened the opposers and made before it."[3]

re joined with the vote of thanks to Governor Yale, and, er, in February, 1721, Dummer writes to Governor Sal- r. Yale has shipped another £100 worth of goods for the , however, is but half what he promised me a month ago, d me he would remit you £200 during his life and make l provision to take place after his death. But old gentle- ul."[4] It was not forgetfulness, but death, which caused se further donations, for Governor Yale died on July 8, In his will he left £500 to the college, but for some could not be probated and the college lost it. What s enough to fix the college at New Haven and make it college would live. A picture of him, sent over years at-grandson, Dudley North, had a Latin inscription ap- last distich of which appears to-day, with an engraving , on the cover of the old "Yale Literary Magazine."[5]

nm mens grata manet, nomen laudesque Yalenses
antabunt soboles unanimique patres.

"While the mind remains grateful the children and nited heart, shall sing the name and praises of Yale."

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le, 243.
neticut, II, 28. In English, "We agree, determine, and decree that be called by the name of the most beneficent benefactor and be ge."
8.
le, 244.
le, 247.

SECTION II.—GROWTH OF THE COLLEGIATE SCHOOL (1718–1745.)

THE UNITED COLLEGE.

When college came together, after the vacation, the new building was occupied for the first time. It was wooden, three stories high, had a steep-roofed attic with dormer windows, and is said to have cost £1,000.[1] There were three entries, a room for dining hall and chapel, a library, twenty-two studies, with adjacent bedrooms for two or three students, and a one-story kitchen. It stood till the Revolution and was rather imposing, with "an air of grandeur."[2] As a compliment to the upper house, it was invited to use the library for its next session, and did so. At this time an act was passed to put an end to all quarrels about the college.[3] It provides that the state grant shall be distributed proportionally among the teachers as before; that Wethersfield graduates are to have their diplomas from Yale College, and the undergraduates there are to be admitted to the same standing at New Haven; that Hartford is to have £500 for a statehouse to solace her, and Saybrook £50 for her school; the governor and council are to provide for bringing the library to New Haven; and "the scholars at Wethersfield" are to "come down" thither.[4] To show that union was restored, £50, given by Hon. Jahleel Brenton, of Newport, R. I., for a college at Hartford, were received by the Yale trustees "by the hand of one of the Hartford gentlemen."[3]

The next task was to get the library from Saybrook, and the council, on October 28, sent an order to Mr. Daniel Buckingham, son of the former pastor there, "to deliver to the rector, or his order, the books and papers belonging to that college,[5] which were left in his house when the said college was moved to New Haven." In pursuance of this the trustees demanded the books and were refused them, Buckingham declaring "he did not know that he had any books belonging to Yale College [seeming to deny the new name], but when he did and should receive authentick orders he would deliver them."[6] The sheriff was ordered to bring Mr. Buckingham before the council,[7] which was done the next day, December 3, but he was obstinate, and finally they made him give bond to answer to the legislature for his conduct. The sheriff further was directed "to demand the said books and, upon his refusal, to enter into the house and deliver them to the rector, or to Mr. Samuel Russell, of Branford, or Mr. Thomas Ruggles, of Guilford."[8] He went at once, but was threatened that if he entered "it should be

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[1] It should be remembered that Yale College was strictly only the name of the building till the new charter, in 1745.

[2] Yale Annals, 198.

[3] Yale Annals, 199.

[4] Connecticut Records, VI, 83.

[5] Connecticut Records, VI, 91.

[6] Connecticut Records, VI, 92.

[7] The council was meeting at Saybrook.

[8] Connecticut Records, VI, 93–94.

and so went back for advice. At last he entered the ound the books, and got an order authorizing him to carts and oxen to carry the books to Guilford and de- apt. Janna Meigs's house to Rev. Thomas Ruggles. er issued a proclamation that all having books belong- ate school should return them at once.[2] So high ran ok on this matter that bridges on the route were de- oken down, oxen turned loose, and other attacks made, red and sixty volumes and some valuable papers were one thousand volumes reached New Haven.[3]

ll the Wethersfield students came to New Haven, but vent back, alleging Tutor Johnson's insufficiency.

ECTOR TIMOTHY CUTLER (1719–1722).

the governor summoned the council and trustees to ven in March. The Hartford trustees refused to come, d not advised the scholars in their going to or coming ,"[4] and others were detained by sickness, etc., so that were there. The council deliberated for three or four ees told them that Mr. Johnson "was well known as a ficient learning, and that they can not but look upon it hy part in them if any of those that have deserted the eavored to scandalize a gentleman in such a manner." had been endeavoring to procure a rector to reside at unsuccessfully," and were of the opinion that it was y to procure, immediately, some gentleman to be resi- rector *pro tempore*."[5] The council agreed with them, m to do so at once. The trustees present then stated idered that matter and resolved that the Rev. Mr. minister of Stratford, was a person of those qualifica- could not but think him very proper to take charge of government of the students in Yale College." The l of this, and said:

> n expedient universally acceptable to the colony and to all per- n under any uneasiness respecting the state of that college and to put an end to the contentions which are unhappily arisen for on residing there.'

er was Rector Andrew's son-in-law, so the change was o him. Born in Massachusetts, he was graduated from at the age of 17 and, eight years later, had been called is probable he was already uneasy in a pastorate, and escape to the college. He was not unpleasing to the the disaffected students returned in June and the

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ecords, VI, 96.
ecords, VI, 97.
un., II, 32; Yale Annals, 200.
[4] Connecticut Records, VI, 99.
[5] Connecticut Records, VI, 100.
[6] Connecticut Records, VI, 101.

trustees the same month voted him a salary of £140. At commencement his temporary appointment was made permanent by formal vote.[1] A month later the legislature freed him from all taxes, while holding his office. President Stiles says of him: "He was an excellent linguist, he was a great Hebrician and Orientalist." He was "a fine Arabic scholar, a good logician, geographer, and rhetorician; in the philosophy and metaphysics and ethics of his day he was great; he was a noble Latin orator; he was of commanding presence and dignity in government; he was a man of extensive reading in the academical sciences, divinity, and ecclesiastical history; he was of a high, lofty, and despotic mien; he made a grand figure as the head of a college."[2] With this paragon at its head, the career of the college seemed destined to be prosperous.

To satisfy his old parishoners the college bought from him his house and home lot there and gave them to the people.[3] For his accommodation, the college went to work to build a "rector's house;"[4] after several unsuccessful attempts obtained a "brief," authorizing the collection of money from the legislature;[5] raised about £100 thereby, and in October, 1721, got an act passed that "what shall be gained by the impost on rum for two years next coming shall be applied to the building of a rector's house for Yale College."[6] Lest this should not be enough—and it eventually brought in about £300—"two articles of debt to the colony" were given in the next May.[7] With this aid the house was built on Rev. Mr. Hooke's lot, where now the College Street Church stands. This lot was given by Mr. Hooke to the church and by it sold to the college for £43. The house cost about £600,[8] "bills of credit," and was finished in the summer of 1722.[9] It was sold in 1801 and taken down in 1834.[10]

THE GROWING COLLEGE.

In May, 1719, just after Cutler's election, the general court granted £300 from the sale of lands to be paid to the college, £40 annually for seven years: "Provided no other income that may happen to appertain to said college be sufficient for the encouragement of said college, before the seven years be expired."[11] This same year room rent is fixed at 20 shillings; graduates are to pay the same amount for diplomas; the weekly charge for diet, sweeping, and making beds is 4 shillings and

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[1] Yale Annals, 202-203. Trumbull's Conn., II, 32. Connecticut Records, VI, 159.

[2] Yale Annals, 272.

[3] Trumbull's Conn., II, 33. The price paid was £80 sterling.

[4] Connecticut Records, II, 256, 260, 267.

[5] Yale Annals, 237.

[6] Connecticut Records, II, 283.

[7] Connecticut Records, VI, 325-337. These amounted to £99; whether anything was realized from them is unknown.

[8] Equal to £260 sterling.

[9] Yale Annals, 259.

[10] Yale Book, I, 463 *et seq.*

[11] Connecticut Records, II, 125, 130, 214.

are now about 40 students. One of these is Jonathan
writes this summer, "I take very great content under
on, as all the rest of the scholars seem to do." He
20 at the head of his class, preached, became tutor,
ampton, and later at Stockbridge, Mass., was chosen
college of New Jersey, and died there 1758. He was
t graduate of the college, the greatest theologian of
ablest metaphysician of the period between Leibnitz
James Mackintosh said of him:

tle argument, perhaps unmatched, certainly unsurpassed among
s in some of the ancient mystics, with a character which raised

of his we learn the interesting fact that mathematics[3]
the far-famed text-books of Alsted's Geometry and
ronomy.[4]

he students, for many years, attended services in the
Church, having seats reserved them in the gallery and
a year apiece for them. All seemed pleasant; but a
as at hand.[5]

THE FACULTY'S CHANGE OF FAITH.

ers of Connecticut were all Congregationalists, with a
ers or Rogerenes. But about the beginning of the
ry the Episcopal Church began to effect a lodgment
d established a small church at Stratford, the town
Cutler went to take charge of the college. Before he
d later, "he had been many years of this persuasion,
e was the more uneasy in performing the acts of his
tford, and the more readily accepted the call to a col-
t at New Haven."[6] But to announce such beliefs was
to be taken at once, and for years he kept them se-
S, 1722, came the first rumors of the events to follow.
seph Morgan, who had been traveling in Connecticut,
Mather:

nnecticut complain that Arminian books are cried up in Yale
e and learning and Calvinists despised for the contrary.[7]

in the college library is said to have turned his attention to
was used as a text-book at Yale 1717–1825, when Dugald Stew-
eded it. Edwards, on "The Will," was used at Yale eight years
Yale Book, 1, 387. N. Porter, Yale Annals, 213.)
-236.
rs increased in amount when Dr. S. Johnson was tutor (Wool-

A short while later, on August 20, Rev. Mr. Pigott, a Church of England missionary, wrote to England of a conference with Rector Cutler and five clergymen, who "are determined to declare themselves professors of the Church of England as soon as they understand they will be supported at home."[1] On September 12, commencement day, all the notables of the colony were assembled, and the day after the rector, one of the two tutors, Mr. Browne, and five of the neighboring clergymen presented themselves before the trustees and stated that "some of us doubt the validity and the rest are more fully persuaded of the invalidity of the Presbyterian ordination, in opposition to the Episcopal;"[2] and, on being asked for a formal written statement of this, drew one up. This event produced the greatest sensation in the colony, and, indeed, throughout New England. President Woolsey compared the alarm to that which would be caused now "if the theological faculty of the college were to declare for the Church of Rome, avow their belief in transubstantiation, and pray to the Virgin Mary."[3] A Connecticut pastor, and one of the trustees, writing to Cotton Mather, says:

> I apprehend the axe is hereby laid to the root of our civil and sacred employments and a doleful gap opened for trouble and confusion in our churches.[4]

In Massachusetts Judge Sewall writes in his diary:

> Dr. I. Mather prayed; much bewailed the Connecticut apostasie; that Mr. Cutler and others should say there was no minister in New England.[5]

The trustees, however, without doing anything at once, adjourned for a month to give the ministers time to reconsider.[6] At this October meeting, Governor Saltonstall presided "very genteelly," and a discussion was carried on till it became bitter, when he put an end to it. The result was that Rector Cutler, who had been the leader in the conferences which they had held in deciding on their course, Tutor Browne, and two of the ministers[7] stood firm, and later sailed to Europe to take orders. The other three clergymen were convinced and remained Congregationalists.[8] One outcome of the affair was inevitable, Rector Cutler could no longer remain in his position and the trustees voted that they "do excuse the Rev. Mr. Cutler from all further services as rector of Yale College, that the trustees accept of the resignation which Mr. Brown hath made as tutor."[9] They also voted that all officers in future must assent to the confession of faith in the Saybrook platform and "particularly give satisfaction of the soundness of their faith in opposition to Arminian and prelatical corruptions."[10] It is, however, a very noticeable fact that none of the graduates who changed their

[1] Conn. Ch. Doc., I, 57.
[2] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn., I, 38.
[3] Woolsey, Hist. Discourse, 1850.
[4] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn., I, 39.
[5] Mass. Hist. Soc. Colls. 5, VII, 309.
[6] Yale Annals, 270.
[7] Messrs. Johnson and Wetmore.
[8] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn, I, 29, 30.
[9] Yale Annals, 271.
[10] Trumbull's Connecticut, Vol. II, 34.

r affection to Yale College,[1] and one of them, at least, signal service.

n his return from Europe, became pastor of Christ nd remained there until his death in 1765.[2]

THE INTERREGNUM—1723–1726.

m was tried that next winter. New tutors had been e rectorship was vacant, and the plan was devised should reside at the college in turn, a month each. imagined, worked poorly; the time was too short, n necessarily followed different plans of instruction, rees of skill.[3] Apparently Rev. Mr. Woodbridge, of rmally offered the rector's position, and it was he who n 1723; a proof that the old animosities of the time ntirely forgotten. In April, 1723, the trustees chose illiams,[4] of Boston, to fill the vacant chair, and on his liphalet Adams, of New London; Rev. Edward Wig- or of divinity at Harvard, and Rev. William Russell, ere successively chosen and successively declined.[5] e trustees fell back again on Rector Andrew, and he nmencements in 1724, 1725, and 1726.[6] He lived to be f the original trustees and to be pastor at Milford r his death did not occur until 1738.

erregnum Governor Saltonstall died, September 20, e friendship for the college had often been proved.[7]

THE EXPLANATORY CHARTER.

l been left vague in the first charter: how many trus- uorum, whether trustees could be removed, etc., and ad occasioned trouble in times past. Just after Rec- e trustees sent questions to the legislature on those r Governor Saltonstall drew up, and the general court sed, "an act in explanation of and in addition to" the rovided that when a trustee is "by Providence inca- ending that service, or shall himself decline the same, choose a successor; that on notice of a meeting, by rustees, seven shall be a quorum, and a majority of tes; that the age for trustees shall be reduced to 30 e rector shall be, *ex officio*, a trustee."[9] There was, sitation about the reception of this act, "and at first

aid to have been hostile ars, but he was a Har- Annals, 273).

ticut, II, 36.

Yale Annals, 290.

Yale Annals, 597.

Yale Annals, 312.

Yale Annals, 289.

Connecticut Records, VI, 417.

the trustees failed to observe some of its provisions." The rector was not recognized as a trustee till 1721.[1]

RECTOR ELISHA WILLIAMS (1725–1739).

On September 29, 1725, the trustees chose Rev. Elisha Williams as rector. This was the man who had conducted the rival college at Wethersfield some years before; but now all parties were fully reconciled and differences were forgotten. Rector Williams was in many ways a remarkable man; born in Massachusetts, graduated at Harvard in 1711, he studied divinity, and, marrying in Wethersfield began there the study of law. This study was broken off by his occupation as teacher of the college students, and after all these were united in New Haven he was called as pastor of the church at Newington. There he was officiating when the call to Yale College reached him.[2] His response was probably favorable, for the trustees at once appealed to the assembly to free Newington from "country tax" for four years, so that they might use the money to settle another minister. This the legislature did, furthermore rejoicing "in the good Providence that conducted the reverend trustees to fill up the vacancy of a rector in said college with a gentleman so agreeable to the country and so very acceptable to the assembly."[3]

The negotiations with him were not concluded at once, but in the following May the general assembly granted Newington £100 16*s*. "in satisfaction for part of the sum the trustees agreed the said inhabitants should have," this being done on the information from the trustees that "they had prevailed with the Rev. Mr. Elisha Williams."[4] On September 13, 1726, he was inaugurated, making an oration in the college hall, assenting to the confession of faith, and being saluted as rector by the trustees, coming in succession.[5] He was a good scholar and an excellent teacher, governing more by influence than by rules. Under him vice and disorder were suppressed and taste for study and useful and polite literature increased, and "the college flourished and was happy."[6] His family was very prominent in western Massachusetts, and to that fact Yale is indebted for the large number of students who entered there from that section of the country.[7]

PEACE AND PROSPERITY.

Tuition was raised to 40 shillings in 1726, but this did not hinder the increase of students. In that year twenty-three graduated, the largest

[1] Yale Annals, 289.

[2] Yale Annals, 321.

[3] Connecticut Records, VI, 569. On April 13, 1726, the council sent him a letter.—Connecticut Records, VI, 580.

[4] Connecticut Records, VII, 24.

[5] Trumbull's Connecticut, II, 36.

[6] J. L. Kingsley, 11; Trumbull's Connecticut, II, 37.

[7] Yale Annals, 322. He was a relative of Col. Ephraim Williams, the founder of Williams College.

d the name and fame of the college gradually spread
ighboring colonies. From New York came the four
estined to play so important a part in the history of their
husetts, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey
In 1735 graduated Dr. Joseph Bellamy, the distin-
gian, and Aaron Burr the elder, who was the second of
lents Yale gave the young College of New Jersey. Two
ale sent forth another of her long list of college presi-
rson of Rev. Eleazar Wheelock, who, with his classmate,
amin Pomeroy, was the first sharer in the "Dean's
ch more anon. During this period Connecticut, as ever,
the college. In 1727 the assembly granted it "the im-
num for one year,"[2] but refused to free the rector from
lid again two years later. In 1728,[3] on account "of the
stances of Yale College in respect of money to support
rges," the colony treasurer is ordered to advance £50,[4]
ar a grant of £80 for two years is made,[5] in addition to
lowance." As bills of credit were losing value, in 1730
t for two years was increased to £100, and this was
newed, so as to extend till 1741.[6]
emorial from the trustees, "the assembly do grant and
ach of the five new townships lately laid out east of
iver, there shall be laid out in one entire piece 300 acres
racts of land shall be granted and confirmed to the
ollege."[7] For laying out these "college farms," £40
ed in 1738,[8] and a patent for them was given in 1740.[9]
tors, and students of the college, until the expiration
aking their second degree," were freed from poll taxes
e rector's estate like that of clergymen is to be free from

house" about this time began to need repairs, and £50
ed therefor in October, 1735, but the cost was consider-
l so in 1736, £128, 18*s.* 3*d.* had to be granted for these
erecting a fence.[12]

as in the class of 1731, John in that of 1733, Philip in 1737, and

ecords, VII, 133.
65, 401.
ecords, VII, 178.
ecords, VII, 229.
ecords, VII, 302, 472, 523; VIII, 24, 203.
ecords, VII, 412.
ecords, VIII, 203.
ecords, VIII, 346.
ecords, VIII, 131.
ecords, VIII, 15.
ecords, VIII, 37, 66, 75. In October, 1738, £5 8*s.* 9*d.* is appropri-
son as an unpaid balance of this grant.

Of the inner life of the college during this period we know but little. Board in Commons cost about 5 shillings a week, tuition 50 shillings, and graduation charges were 40 shillings more.[1] The rules were in manuscript and must be copied by each student; some of them are passing strange. The requirements for admission are "to be found expert in both ye Greek and lattin Grammer, as also Grammatically Resolving both lattin and Greek authors and in making good and true lattin." "Every student shall exercise himself in Reading Holy Scriptures by himself day by day, yt ye word of Christ may Dwell in Him ritchly and yt he may be filled with ye knowledge of ye will of God in all wisdom and spiritual understanding." Students are to "avoid profane swearing, lying, needless asseverations, foolish garrulings, Chidings, strifes, railings, gesting, uncomely noise, spreading ill rumors, Divulging secrets, and all manner of troublesome and offensive behavour." "No undergraduate shall, upon pretence of Recreation, or any excuse whatsoever," without permission, "be absent from his study, or appointed exercises in ye school, except Half an Hour att breakfaste, an Hour and Half att noon after Dinner, and after ye Evening Prayer till nine of ye Clock." "No student shall go into any tavern, victualling house, or inn to eat or Drink, except he shall be Called by his parents,[2] or some sufficient person, yt ye Rector or tutor shall except of." "No student shall use ye Company or familiar acquaintance of persons of a Dissolute and unquiet life, nor intermeddle with men's business, nor intrude himself into ye Chambers of students, nor shall any undergraduate go att Courts, elections, Keeping high Days, or go a hunting, or fowling," without leave, nor shall any be out of his room after 9 at night, nor have a "light in his Chamber after eleven, nor before four in ye morning." Prayers are to be at 6 a. m. in summer and sunrise in winter (a more reasonable time than was used in the memory of those now living), and between 4 and 5 p. m. "All undergraduates, except freshmen who shall Read english into Greek, shall Read some part of ye old testament out of Hebrew into Greek in ye morning, and shall turn some part of ye new testament out of ye english or lattin into ye Greek att evening att ye time of Rescitation." "All students, after they shall have done reciting rhetorick and ethicks on fridays recite Wollebius[3] theology and on saturday morning Ames theologic thesis in his Medulla and on Saturday evening ye assemblies shorter chatechism in lattin and on Sabbath Day attend ye explication of Ames's Cases of Conscience."

In Freshman year, on the "four first Days of ye week" were recitations in Greek and Hebrew, "onely beginning logick att ye latter end of ye year." Sophomores were occupied with "logick, with ye exercise of themselves in ye tongues." The juniors studied principally "phis-

[1] Yale Annals, 346. In 1727 "the Reverend Trustees" took the oath of allegiance to the new King George II. Conn. Rec., VII, 132.

[2] Later "or Gardiner" was added.

[3] A Swiss who wrote in Latin (Woolsey), Yale Book, II, 495.

seniors labored over "metaphisicks and mathematicks, n ye former studies." The last days of the week were "Rhetorick, oratory, and divinity," to the first two of r Williams paid great attention. Syllogistic disputa- g sermons fell to the lot of all. Punishment was by aduated students" might not, on commencement day, n of inebriating Drink of any kind whatsoever upon g degraded," nor might they have it at their rooms.[1] ns, as ever, were a source of complaint[2] and at times students of the period, got "six quarts of Rhum and fool of Sydar and about eight pounds suger and mad nd evited every Scholer in Colege and mad such pro- that the tutor was aroused.

trustees resolved to admit no student till some one nd for the payment of his dues, a provision in force even

riends came from time to time; good Dr. Watts sent ks, and later a pair of globes.[5] Dr. Daniel Turner, of er 28 volumes, and asked for and received an honorary which, the wits of the period said, meant "Multum seph Thompson, esq., of London, gave mathematical and added a set of surveying instruments four years ime a reflecting telescope, a microscope, a barometer, matical instruments were purchased by subscription. e's collection of apparatus.[7]

BISHOP BERKELEY.

gifts were overshadowed by one from him whose name ead of this subdivision, George Berkeley, D. D., born a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, made Dean of Bishop of Cloyne. About 1725 he formed the idea llege in the Bermudas, to educate the American abo- train Church of England missionaries for America.[8] ical scheme. Bermuda is 600 miles from the nearest tinent, and his "Proposal" reads like a romance.[9] His dowment of the college were from an appropriation of e Crown lands in St. Kitts, which Sir Robert Walpole much solicitation, and which the Commons accepted.

, 334.

ry of Yale College.

J. L. Kingsley, 33, 44.

Bishop Berkeley's Gifts to Yale College, N. H. Col. Hist. Soc.

Berkeley, an enthusiast, obtained large subscriptions from his friends, and with his own private means thought he had enough prospect of success to come with his family to America, and did so, arriving at Newport, R. I., January 23, 1729.[1] He had pronounced the age barren of glorious schemes; but, to falsify his own words, he left one of the richest preferments in Europe to endeavor to Christianize and educate the heathen on a salary of £100 a year.[2] It adds a link of connection with another celebrated Irish dean to think that he received a legacy of £4,000 from Miss Vanhomrig (Swift's Vanessa) before leaving Europe. He purchased a farm at Newport, as a convenient place for inquiry concerning the country and for the supply of provisions for the college, after its founding. He met several of the prominent men of the country round about, notably Rector Williams, Dr. Jared Eliot and Samuel Johnson, through whose influence his attention was drawn to Yale and, while waiting the founding of his college, wrote one of his greatest works, "Alciphron, or the Minute Philosopher." Newport was a thriving town of some 5,000 inhabitants, and he had some thoughts of moving his college there, but finally decided not to do so.[3] At last his hopes were destroyed and, wearied with the useless waiting, he returned home in 1731, and died in Europe twenty years later.[4] Just before his departure he wrote to Dr. Johnson, who had "bespoke the Dean's regard" for Yale College, "not having any further view than to hope he might perhaps send it some good books."[5] In the letter referred to, he says:

> My endeavors shall not be wanting to be useful, and I should be very glad to be so, in particular to the college at New Haven, and the more as you were once a member of it and have still an influence there, I have left a box of books to be given away by you. The Greek and Latin books I would have given to such lads as you think will make the best use of them, or to the school at New Haven.[6]

He not only gave this, but, on July 26, 1732, he made out a deed conveying his Rhode Island farm of 96 acres to the college. This gift was valued at £3,000.[7] This was to be the property of the college, which was to give the income to three students "towards their maintenance and subsistence, between their first and second degree;" these are to be called "scholars of the house,"[8] and while holding the position to reside three-quarters of the year at college. They are to be chosen in May, by

[1] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn., 1, 76.
[2] Winsor, Nar. and Crit. Hist. of Amer., v, 141.
[3] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn., 1, 78.
[4] Bishop Berkeley's Gifts to Yale College, 118.
[5] Bishop Berkeley's Gifts to Yale College, 151.
[6] Yale Annals, 421.
[7] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn. 1, 83.
[8] "*Scholaris ædilitus*" of the Latin laws. Before this the term was used for a sort of "ædile," appointed by president and tutors to inspect the buildings and was somewhat like the inspector of to-day. He was not to leave till Friday after commencement; because in that week more than usual damage was done to the buildings. Woolsey, 43.

or head of the college," and "the senior episcopal mis-
colony" (which place Dr. Johnson then occupied), and
was to be on Greek and Latin; "all persons having
ear the said examination and the best scholars are to be
se of a division in opinion among the judges it was to be
Further, if no Episcopal clergyman be there, "the elec-
rformed by the rector alone, and, if there be a surplus
the same is to be laid out for Greek and Latin books to be
nch of the undergraduate students, as shall show them-
erving by their compositions in the Latin tongue on a
r theme proposed by the electors." Finally, if any diffi-
or difference "arise," Berkeley was to be final arbiter.[2]
s gives, as a reason for this munificient gift, that Dr.
aded the Dean to believe that Yale College would soon
al and that they had received his immaterial philos-
st, when the news came to Yale of this gift, they were
receive it, lest it should be clogged with proselyting
the deed of gift reassured them and the trustees
d the Dean, in December, and Rector Williams, a little
to a friend in Boston, to remove his suspicions, says:

to us in such a manner as bespeaks a true Catholic spirit. And
e may serve to the end the Dean in his letter to me says he prays
noting charity, learning, and piety in this part of the world.[4]

holars from that time to this has numbered some of the
hed of Yale's graduates and many a freshman has been
lassical study by the contest for the Berkeley premiums
sition.[5] The management of this gift, however, is a con-
le of how to get as little good as possible from a benefac-
he college authorities most foolishly leased the farm for
ey found that "by leasing said farm on short leases," it
d to so good an advantage as land cultivated by free-
lease, with some immaterial changes, still endures and,
lowest computation the land is now worth $100,000, it
ge only $140 a year![6] In return for the gratitude shown
trove to do something for the college library. He had
to Dr. Johnson to know "whether they would admit the
ker and Chillingfleet into the library of the college in

strious men who held the "Dean's bounty" in the colonial period
Jared Ingersoll, William Samuel Johnson, President Daggett,
, Governor Strong, of Massachusetts, Silas Deane, John Trumbull,
Abraham Baldwin, and Chauncey Goodrich.
y's Gifts to Yale College, 155, 156.
y's Gifts to Yale College, 152.
70, 471.
given in "Bishop Berkeley's Gifts to Yale College," 156–160.
of S. Johnson, 80, 81.

New Haven,[1] and at the time of his deeding the farm, he writes again: "I shall make it my endeavor to procure a benefaction of books for the college library and am not without hopes of success."[2] Success indeed followed his efforts; for, on May 30, 1733, he shipped about eight hundred and eighty volumes for the college, "the finest collection ever brought to America at one time," says President Clap. The collection contained over two hundred and fifty folios and was estimated to be worth nearly £500 sterling. The collection was admirably selected and, for many years, was kept in an especial part of the library.[3] The good Bishop never lost interest in the college he had aided. President Clap sent him, as the work of Berkelian scholars, some "agreeable specimens of learning," in 1750. Writing in return, Berkeley says, "By them I find a considerable progress made in astronomy and other academical studies in your college, in the welfare and prosperity whereof I sincerely interest myself." A year later he writes again:

> The daily increase of learning and religion in your seminary of Yale College gives me very sensible pleasure and an ample recompense for my poor endeavors to further those good ends. May God's Providence continue to prosper and cherish the rudiments of good education, which have hitherto taken root and thrive so well under your auspicious care and government.[4]

There is something extremely pleasant in the interest that this staunch churchman took in the Congregationalist College, and the friendly intercourse he maintained with its stern, uncompromising old president. It has been intimated[5] that the college was not sufficiently grateful for the gift; but this seems incorrect. When news came of Berkeley's death President Stiles, then tutor, delivered a Latin address in memory of him.[6]

RECTOR WILLIAMS RESIGNS.

The rector had, in 1739, presided over the college for thirteen years. He had seen all his sons graduate and his own health had been impaired by the sea air and the sedentary life;[7] so he gave up his office in the year above named. The trustees accepted his resignation "with great reluctancy" and "hearty thankfulness for all his past good service in this capacity," which thanks he fully deserved. He returned to his farm in Wethersfield, went to the legislature, and was chosen speaker at once; not only did he receive that honor, but they also made him a judge of the superior court.[8] In 1745 he went as chaplain of a

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[1] Beardsley's Life of S. Johnson, 75.

[2] Beardsley's Life of S. Johnson, 81.

[3] Yale Annals, 471. Trumbull's Conn., II, 302. Bishop Berkeley's Gift to Yale College (a list of the books), 162-165.

[4] Bishop Berkeley's Gifts to Yale College, 166.

[5] Beardsley's Ch. in Conn, I, 84.

[6] Bishop Berkeley's Gifts to Yale College, 169.

[7] Yale Annals, 621.

[8] Yale Annals, 632; Trumbull's, Connecticut, II, 302.

e expedition against Cape Breton, and, in 1746, was nd commander-in-chief of the Connecticut forces. In e of New Jersey induced him to solicit funds for it in ither he went, being also commissioned to procure some m the government to his regiment. There he met the untingdon, Whitfield, Doddridge, and others of the and there, his first wife having died, he married Miss ter of the good old commentator on the Scriptures. wrote of him:

Williams to be one of the most valuable men upon earth; he has, t sense of religion, solid learning, consummate prudence, great ess of temper, and a certain nobleness of soul capable of contriv- greatest things without seeming to be conscious of his having

to this country, this versatile man became a merchant, rcolonial Congress at Albany in 1754, and died a year

TOR (LATER PRESIDENT) CLAP, 1739–1766.

ireaded another interregnum and, the day after Rector nation, October 31, 1739, met and "proceeding after on, to the choice of a meet person to fill up the vacant choice of the Rev'd Mr. Thomas Clap, of Windham." Massachusetts in 1703, and graduated from Harvard e fifth and last of Yale's presidents to graduate from indeed, from any other than Yale itself. He had been iam, Conn., since 1726,[3] and had a reputation for sound familiarity with the whole course of academic studies, pure mathematics and astronomy, in both of which ch advanced the curriculum. He was a man of great ter and remarkable qualifications for business.[4] He d Calvinist in faith. President Stiles says of him:

ental powers, clear perception, and solid judgment. Though not al learning, he had a competent knowledge of the three learned matics and natural philosophy I have no reason to think he was n in America, except the most learned Prof. Winthrop. He had the Scriptures and had read the most eminent divines of the last He was considerably read in the common law of England and ws of his country. He was not boisterous, or noisy, but still, e determined, resolute, firm, immovable even to absolute despo- rson, he was not tall, yet, being thick set, he appeared rather His aspect was lively, placid, serene, and contemplative.[5]

ood said in his funeral sermon, "He presided with wisdom, grav- J. L. King p. 11.

-635; Trumbull's Connecticut, II, 303.

12.

13.

He fearlessly and devotedly advanced the interests of the college.

His people did not wish to lose him; but, "as they were not satisfied that they should be in the way of their duty if they opposed his going, they would lay the whole affair to the council of Providence."[1] A council of ministers was called and on December 10 advised his leaving. On April 2, 1740, he was inducted into the rectorship of the college, which now numbered some eighty students and had had over four hundred graduates.[2] He proved his orthodoxy to the trustees and addresses were made in the college hall. The church in Windham asked for a recompense for losing their pastor, and a committee to whom the matter was referred said that as Mr. Clap had been at Windham fourteen years, about half a minister's usual service in a pastorate (rather longer pastorates being in vogue then than now), the town should receive one-half of his settlement,[3] or £53 sterling, which the general assembly gave them in May, in the depreciated "bills of credit," £310 of which were needed to make up the sum.[4]

THE END OF THE COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.

The colony continued as generous as ever. In 1741, it freed "the rector, tutors, and students at the collegiate school"[5] from military service again and, a year later, put a premium on the diplomas by enacting that "no person, who has not been educated or graduated in Yale College, or Harvard College in Cambridge, or some other allowed foreign protestant college or university shall take the benefit of the laws of this government, respecting the settling and support of ministers."[6] The colony also gave more substantial aid; in 1741, it granted "£30 in bills of credit of the new tenour" for three years, "in addition to the standing allowance,"[7] and two years thereafter, "in lieu of all former grants," it gave "such sum in bills of public credit as shall be equivalent to £100 lawful money."[8] In this connection, it is interesting to note that one of the commencement speakers in 1740, discussed the question, "An Pecuniam chartaceam crediti immutabilis emittere possibile sit?" and answered in the negative.[9]

From time to time, the buildings needed repairs. In 1740, the trustees petitioned and the legislature granted "that the college house shall be repaired at the charge of this Colony as soon as may be," and a committee was appointed to "draw out of the publick treasury of this Colony enough to make these repairs." A further petition was made for a new house, as the present one only held about one-half the students; this, however, was postponed and the war coming on still

[1] Yale Book, I, 65.
[2] Yale Annals, 636.
[3] Trumbull's Conn., II, 303.
[4] Connecticut Records, VIII, 308.
[5] Connecticut Records, VIII, 379.
[6] Connecticut Records, VIII, 502.
[7] Connecticut Records, VIII, 436.
[8] Connecticut Records, VIII, 553.
[9] In English "whether it be possible to emit a paper money of unchangeable value." (Yale Annals, p. 637.)

it.[1] In October, 1741, it was voted to erect a kitchen
or's house, to repair it, and to fence the lot, and a com-
pointed, as before, to draw such sums as would be

was appropriated to pay those who supervised the
thereafter £200 in "Bills of Credit old tenour," was
the rector's house,[4] and this not proving enough, £10
15.[5] At these repairs, the roof was shingled, the walls
"colored, and the windows filled with sash glass."
fts were becoming more numerous. Mr. Auditor Ben-
sent over Johnston's "Latin Psalms," in 9 volumes;
nos. Wilson, of London, sent for the students thirty
hop of Sodor's instructions to the Indians.[6] Anthony
thy French emigrant, dying in Fairfield in 1740, left
the college after his wife's death, which occurred
r Clap's wife gave a new bell for the college building.[8]
Rector Clap was at once apparent; as soon as he was
tringent rules as to attendance and use of the library
1743, tuition was fixed at 24 shillings a year, and the
the library published. In this about 2,600 volumes
being remarkably good collections in classics, theology,
a fairly good one in English literature, though there were
books. Rector Clap, in an advertisement attached to
the students, with the help of the catalogue, to study
ear principally the Tongues, Arithmetic and Algebra;
gic, Rhetoric and Geometry; the Third, Mathematics
losophy; and the Fourth, Ethics and Divinity." Bound
ue, and preliminary to it, was "An Introduction to the
phy, Exhibiting a General View of all the Arts and
Use of Pupils. With a Catalogue of some of the most
rs necessary to be read in order to instruct them in a
edge of each of them. By a Gentleman Educated at
This was by Dr. Samuel Johnson, and is another proof
t to his alma mater.[10]
, all undergraduates were required to board in Com-
his board was, may be gathered from a bill of fare of
r. This does not seem to have been very sumptuous

ne loaf of bread for 4 persons, which shall weigh one pound.
ne loaf of bread as aforesaid, 2½ pounds of beef, veal, or mutton,
pork about twice a week in the summer time; one quart of beer;
sauce. For Supper for 4: two quarts of milk and one loaf of

[1] Records, VIII. 345, 442.
[2] Records, VIII. 437.
[3] Records, VIII. 530.
[4] Records, IX. 62.
[5] Records, IX, 153.
[6] Yale College.
[7] Yale Annals, 661.
[8] Yale Annals, 699.
[9] Yale Annals, 637.
[10] Yale Annals, 723, 724.
[11] Yale Annals, 723.

bread, when milk may conveniently be had; and, when it cannot, then an apple pie, which shall be made of 1¾ pounds of dough, ¼ pound hog's fat, two ounces sugar, and one peck of apples.[1]

From the extra grant in 1743, a third tutor was employed, so that the faculty now consisted of four; a tutor for each of the three lower classes, and the president for the seniors.[2] Rector Clap's fondness for astronomy has been mentioned, and we find that he made an "Orrery or Planetarium" in 1743, which cost less than 20 shillings and yet represented, not only the orbits of the earth and five other planets; but also that of Halley's Comet.[3]

In 1744 a draft of a new charter (undoubtedly Rector Clap's work) was read by the trustees and ordered to be given to Governor Fitch, himself a Yale man (1721) "for his perusal and best thoughts upon it and that the draught, by the advice of two or three Trustees, be presented by the Rector to the General Assembly in October next, desiring that they would be pleased to pass it into an Act.[3] They did so, and the "Collegiate School" became "Yale College."

OLD AND NEW LIGHTS.

In 1735 began that remarkable revival of religion known as the "Great Awakening." As a consequence of this, in the fall of 1740 the evangelist, George Whitefield, came to America at the request of many there who had been aroused by the preaching of Jonathan Edwards, and, on his tour, spent four days in October (23–27) at New Haven. There he "spoke very closely to the students and shewed the dreadful consequences of an unconverted ministry,"[4] and dined with Rector Clap. In February there was a revival of religion in the college and, at first, the college authorities seem to have been fully in sympathy with the movement.[5] But the extravagances of some of the itinerant preachers changed the face of affairs. Notably, Rev. James Davenport, a graduate of 1732, preaching at New Haven, wildly denounced Rev. Mr. Noyes, pastor of the New Haven church, as "an unconverted man; a hypocrite, a wolf in sheep's clothing, and a devil incarnate."[6] This, of course, created a great turmoil and led to a passage of a vote by the trustees that, "if any Students of this College shall directly or indirectly say that the Rector, either of the Trustees, or Tutors are hypocrites, carnal, or unconverted men, he shall for the first offence, make a public confession in the Hall, and for the second offence, be expelled."[7] They even went further and forbade students to go to the "Separate Meetings,"[8] as they were called. Rector Clap espoused the cause of the "Old Lights" so strongly as to head their petitions, committees,

[1] Yale Annals, 663.
[2] Yale Annals, 754.
[3] Yale Annals, 755.
[4] Yale Annals, 661.
[5] Yale Annals, 662.
[6] Bacon's Hist. Discourses, 214.
[7] Yale Annals, 663.
[8] Yale Book, I, 70.

David Brainerd, later the celebrated missionary to the
xpelled by him for attending a Separate meeting and re-
e a public confession of wrongdoing, in saying that
ey "has no more grace than a chair." Even the en-
men as Edwards, Dickinson, and Burr, and Brainerd's
, 1742, could not induce him to revoke his order.[1] At
, in 1744, the trustees made a rule that no man over 21
itted as a freshman without special permission. The
was that "the original design of the College, as declared
was for the training up *youth* in the arts and sciences;"
was that some of the most stubborn adherents of the
were over that age at entrance.[2] In the next year Clap
controversy with Edwards about Whitefield, whom he
opposed.[3] Feeling ran high on both sides. The faculty
out with a denunciation of Whitefield, and Yale fol-
[illegible] in a pamphlet printed at Boston. In the fall of
an event which caused much excitement and placed
in the esteem of the "Old Lights." Two brothers, John
Cleveland, students at the college, returned home for
As their parents attended the preaching of one of the
[illegible]," they naturally went there with them. On their
they were called before the faculty for the heinous
[illegible] to be admonished, and to confess that they
[illegible] to the rules of the gospel, the laws of this colony
[illegible] to be expelled. They naturally continued "to
[illegible] to make an acknowledgment" of the kind
[illegible] in January.[5] This act "made a great
[illegible] unprecedented and cruel. It was considered as
[illegible] of college respecting that case."[6] Letters
[illegible] but it established Rector Clap more firmly
[illegible] Old Lights," who were a majority in the
[illegible] his desired charter was passed by it
[illegible] session, it dismissed a petition of the
[illegible] charter was obtained at a favorable
[illegible] and could not have obtained it.[7]
[illegible] Rector Clap's reign, graduated Eliphalet
[illegible] Company; one of the heroes of the
[illegible] of a regiment in the last French
[illegible] superior court, and member of
[illegible] Samuel Hopkins graduated also in
[illegible] by a system of theology, the
[illegible] him. The class of 1744 numbered

[illegible] degrees were given them many
years later. Brainerd never got his.
Trumbull's Conn., I, 179–183.
Yale Annals, 772.

among its members William Samuel Johnson, who followed in his father's footsteps in being President of Columbia College. He was also in the Continental Congress; a signer of the Constitution; and was the first Yale man to receive an honorary degree in law.[1]

SECTION III.—YALE COLLEGE TILL THE REVOLUTION, AND THE ACCESSION OF PRESIDENT STILES (1777).

THE NEW CHARTER.

The original charter, as we have seen, made the trustees "partners, not a body politick,"[2] and Sewall and Addington, in their letter sent with the draft for a charter, say they did not dare "to incorporate it lest it should be liable to be served with a writ of *quo warranto*."[3] But forty-five years later the colony was bolder, and though in 1733 it resolved that it was "at least very doubtful" of its power to incorporate a company, "and hazardous, therefore, for this government to presume upon it," yet, when Yale petitioned for an enlargement of its charter, it dared to make a definite charter of incorporation.[4] This was so broad and ample that it has served the college to this day and hence is worth examining. It is entitled "An act for the more full and complete establishment of Yale College in New Haven and for enlarging the powers and privileges thereof."[5] The preamble states that it "has received the favorable benefactions of many liberal and piously disposed persons and, under the blessing of Almighty God, has trained up many worthy persons for the service of God in the State, as well as in the church," and that the trustees desire more power "for the ordering and managing the said school in the most advantageous and beneficial manner for the promoting all good literature in the present and succeeding generations." Consequently Rector Clap and the other trustees then in office, ten in number, are made "an incorporate society or body corporate and politic; and shall hereafter be called and known by the name of the president and fellows of Yale College in New Haven" and are given the privileges usually enjoyed by corporations. They may hold lands and gifts; shall meet annually (special meetings being provided for); the president and six fellows, or seven without him, shall be a quorum, and may remove and supply the places of any of their members. They "shall have power to appoint a scribe or register, a treasurer, tutors, professors,[6] steward, and all such other officers and

[1] He was made D. C. L. by Oxford in 1776.

[2] Eccles, Constitution of Yale College, 411, N. H. Col. Hist. Soc. Colls.

[3] Eccles, Constitution of Yale College, 413.

[4] Eccles, Constitution of Yale College, 414.

[5] It is in Trumbull, II, 306–310, and Conn. Rec., X, 113, and in Yale annual catalogues.

[6] Woolsey suggests that the reason for having no professors before this was that such were thought officers of a university, not of a college. Yale Book, II, 495 *et seq.*

usually appointed in colleges or universities; to pre-
nister such forms of oaths (not being contrary to the
or this Colony) as they shall think proper," and shall
and establish all such wholesome and reasonable laws,
nces as they shall think fit and proper for the instruc-
n of the students and ordering, governing, ruling, and
al college, etc., which shall be laid before this assembly,
red, and may also be repealed, or disallowed by this
hey shall think proper."

o note that all officers are to take both the oath of
e oath of loyalty to King George and the Hanoverian
e president, with the consent of the fellows, shall
ve and confer all such honors, degrees, or licenses as
in colleges and universities, upon such as they shall
roof. Lands and raisable estate, not exceeding the
£500 sterling, lying in this government, and the per-
al estates of the president and professors," in New
e persons of the tutors, students, and such and so
rants of said college," as give their whole time to it,
n taxes. At the end a grant is made of £100 silver
ings a penny per ounce, to be paid in bills of credit,
n lieu of all former grants." The charter is signed by
overnor, whose efforts for it were very helpful. This
e foundation" for the college's "advancement to a
onorable university."[1] Some of the noticeable differ-
e new charter and the old are, that by this the name
rst legally given to the institution; that the rector
elevated into the president and fellows; that the tem-
of the trustees is replaced by the permanent presi-
n; qualifications for the trustees were mentioned. The
sion of provisions for ecclesiastical government is
he desire not to offend any, in getting the charter
he fact that he follows, filling their own vacancies,
n regard to all such matters.

[illegible] THE CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH.

rales's diary, quoting President Clap's recital of fifteen
s the latter's life, he mentions as one, "May, 1745,
n the new Charter of College" and for twenty years
with unbending sturdiness. We have seen that Clap
he conservative party in religion. In 1745 he called
ice, one of the congregation, to answer before it for his
ds; and he, to avoid the tumult, resigned.[2] Now, how-

[1] Trumbull, ii. 318.
[2] Review, Constitution of Yale College, 428.
[3] Dwight's Rist. Discourses, 221.

ever, his zeal in that way began to grow weak. Mr. Noyes, the minister at New Haven, was thought to be an Arminian; was advanced in years and had but little animation, being dull and uninteresting in preaching. As a consequence of this many parents dreaded putting their sons at a college where they would listen to his preaching, and the students themselves objected to it. It was also unsatisfactory to such an outspoken Calvinist as President Clap. With these things in mind we can see what the corporation desired when they voted "that they would choose a public Professor of Divinity in the college, as soon as may be, by all such ways and means as prudence should direct."[1] Soon after this Hon. Philip Livingston, one of His Majesty's council for the province of New York and the father of four Yale graduates, gave £28.10 to the college to be appropriated as they should deem most for the advantage of the institution.[2] On receipt of this the corporation voted "that it would be most for the benefit and advantage of the college to have a professor of divinity and that, if the beginning of a fund for his maintenance was once laid, it was probable that generous donations might be made in addition thereto." In consideration of this they further voted "that the said sum (from Mr. Livingston) be sequestered and appropriated for a fund for the maintenance of a professor of divinity in the college, and that in commemoration of Mr. Livingston's generosity, the professor on the foundation be called and known by the name and title of the Livingston Professor of Divinity."[3] But the project was left to slumber for several years, till in 1752, the "Separate" Church at New Haven, having grown stronger, called a fine preacher of unsuspected orthodoxy, and many of the students desired to hear him. So Clap went to work again for a professorship of divinity. The legislature had meantime lost its "Old Light" majority and so was inclined to favor his labors, and in October, 1753, passed a resolve "that one principal end proposed in erecting the college was to supply the churches in this colony with a learned, pious, and orthodox ministry; to which end it was requisite that the students of the college should have the best instructions in divinity and the best patterns of preaching set before them; and that the settling a learned, pious, orthodox professor of divinity would greatly tend to promote that good end and design," and therefore they recommended "a general contribution to be made in all the religious societies for that purpose."[4]

The corporation had not waited for this; but had already asked Clap to preach in the college hall to the students till a professor could be secured, and, the General Association of Ministers of Connecticut recommending the same thing, he began preaching in

[1] J. L. Kingsley, 13.

[2] Trumbull, II, 311.

[3] J. L. Kingsley. It is to be regretted that this name has been disused of late years.

[4] Trumbull, II, 316; Conn. Rec., X, 213.

.[1] Two months later, on November 21, the corpora-
religious test laws, which lasted for twenty-two years.
stringent, and declared that every officer on taking his
publicly give consent" to "the assembly's catechism
f faith received and established in the churches of this
he changes his sentiments he "is bound to resign" his
xcited the indignation of the "Old Lights" and of
lieved in creeds, and they claimed Clap was schismatic
eparate church, even going so far as to threaten legal
him.

lent Clap published, in answer to these charges, a
Religious Constitution of Colleges," in which he says
ocieties of ministers for training up persons for the
istry."[2] He tried to prove that as "religious worship,
nstruction on the Sabbath" was "one of the most impor-
education of ministers," so "it was more necessary that
er the conduct of the authority of the college, than any
ucation. That the preaching ought to be adapted to
acity of those who are to be qualified to be instructors
" that it was more necessary that the governors of col-
minate its preacher, than any other officer or in-

ime the corporation was searching for its professor,[5]
n the person of Rev. Naphtali Daggett, of Smithtown,
orn in Massachusetts in 1727 and a graduate of Yale of
, he was destined to be the first president of the college
f its own alumni. He had been at Smithtown some four
according to President Stiles, "a good classical scholar,
moral philosophy, and a learned divine."[6] President
him:

ble as a scholar, a divine, and a preacher. His sermons were
emn, and impressive.

he call to the college[7] and was installed March 3, 1756.
paragon of orthodoxy—

Westminster Catechism and confession of faith, the Nicene Creed,
, Apostles and Athanasian Creeds, 9th of the 39 Articles, *i. e.* on
presented five closely written pages of his confession. He then
nd heresies, which commonly go by the name of Arianism, Socin-
m, Pelagianism, Antinomianism, and Enthusiasm.[8]

llege students could have nothing to fear from his
had been preaching for some months before this;

[3] Eccles, Const. of Y. C., 420.

6-318.

[4] Trumbull, II, 319-324.

omon Williams, of Lebanon, was chosen, but declined on account
L. Kingsley, p. 15.)

19.

[8] New Englander, XVI, 437.

4.

indeed from the previous November. The New Haven church made one last effort to keep the students by offering, "with Mr. Noyes's good liking," to make Prof. Daggett their colleague pastor, and, when this was declined, asked him to preach in their pulpit one-half the time. This was done for some months, but did not prove satisfactory,[1] and was soon given up. The natural thing now was to form the college into a separate church, and this was soon done. June 29, 1757, the corporation, at its meeting, received a petition from the tutors and some of the students that, as a professor of divinity had been settled by the corporation "of their paternal care and goodness," and as the signers were church members, they were "desirous to attend upon the ordinance of the Lord's Supper, under the administration of the reverend professor, and to walk together in stated Christian communion and holy subjection to all the ordinances of Christ." The corporation granted this, and in consequence of it the college church[2] was formed and the first Lord's Supper administered in the college hall on July 3. On the first Sunday of every month in term time, since that day, has that custom been kept up. The church has well[3] fulfilled its mission, and events have fully justified the justice and wisdom of President Clap's course; but at the time great bitterness was felt and quite a war of pamphlets was indulged in, while many were unfortunately alienated from the college.

In addition to Livingston's gift, Gershom Clark, of Lebanon, gave £33 10s. for the use of the professor of divinity, and from these two gifts and the rent of certain college lands,[4] assigned for the purpose, his salary was paid.[5]

NEW BUILDINGS—CONNECTICUT HALL.

To prepare for the enlargement the college received from its new charter, President Clap drew up a code of rules in Latin from those of Oxford, Harvard, and Yale, with some additions, and these were printed in 1748.[6] He also collected a book of customs, now lost, which is supposed to have contained minute rules as to deportment of students toward each other and the college officers.[7] But a far greater service to the institution—he served with a fidelity and zeal rarely equaled—was done by means of his great influence with the legislature, where he was said to appear as often as the members themselves. He induced the general assembly to give the college a new hall, called from its donors, for many years, Connecticut Hall. This still stands, the oldest

[1] Bacon, Historical Discourses, 233.

[2] The original members were the three tutors, one post-graduate, and eight undergraduates (Kingsley, 15.)

[3] Trumbull, II, 326.

[4] These lands were those of the State grant in Litchfield and were leased for 999 years. Trumbull, II. 3, 4.

[5] Trumbull, II, 325.

[6] This is said to have been the first book printed in New Haven.

[7] Yale Book, I, 66.

dings; but student nomenclature long since changed it now bears, South Middle.

lottery of £50,000, "old tenour," was granted, to be ven; 15 per cent of the prizes were to be reserved for as the present college house is not large enough to of the students."[1] By this, £500 sterling were cleared; enough. In October, 1749, on petition, the colony urpose £4,000 "old tenour," or £363 sterling, in pos- n Saltonstall, the proceeds of a French prize taken frigate.[2] On April 17, 1750, the foundation was dent, and it was completed in September, 1752. In 00 brick, and cost, without counting the finishing of 0 sterling, or £14,019 "old tenour." The rooms were by students, who were granted the rent of the rooms recompense them.[4] It measures 100 feet by 40, and ree stories high, with "gambril" roof and "dormer" ained, when built, 32 chambers and 64 studies.[5] Ad- bought for it, this being the first step toward obtain- llege square. At the commencement of 1752 it was esident and fellows entering into it in procession, and was made that, Connecticut having given the build- m tantæ generositatis memoriam, ædes hæc nitida et Connecticutensis nuncupetur." Splendid for those r was it not the finest building in the whole colony? an see traces in ornamental keystones, etc., of more was bestowed on any of the college buildings till far

entirely paid for by previous grants, and in October, bt of £1,764 17s. 3*d.* in "old tenour," and that £6,000 to complete it; and to pay for this the legislature nittee to receive "bonds from sundry persons of this n bills of credit, and deliver the same to President ney was the rest of the proceeds of the prize and the sale of the frigate which captured it, amounting to n October, 1754, £280 sterling, due to the colony on s, was also given to Yale, and this probably finished he building.[3]

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rds, IX. 279, 325; J. L. Kingsley, 38.

Connecticut Records, IX. 493.

Yale Book, I, 442. (F. J. Kingsbury.)

the continual remembrance of so great generosity, this gorgeous shall be called Connecticut Hall." Yale Book, I, 77; Trumbull

rds, X, 46.

Three years after this, the building now completely finished, the corporation met on June 29, 1757, examined the accounts and thanked President Clap for his "extraordinary care, diligence, and labour," in superintending the construction, and his great prudence and frugality "in disbursing the money, for which he received no pay but had generously given his labor for the service of said college."[1] Another "extraordinary instance of his generosity" may be noted here, as he was thanked for it in the same vote. It was the gift of a lot on York street, where the medical school now stands, for a house for the professor of divinity.[2] This lot cost £52 "lawful money," and was given in September, 1756. Not only this, but he interested himself in getting subscriptions for such a house from the governor, deputy governor, and others of prominence, in which attempt he was so successful as to be able to raise the frame of the house in June, 1757. It cost £285 sterling, and was solemnly dedicated.

This may be as convenient a place as any to speak of the subsequent history of South Middle. It contained the "buttery"[3] for many years, till its abolition in 1817. This was a quaint place. There the student had to buy his cider and beer. Loaf sugar, pipes, tobacco, stationery, etc., were also sold. The idea was to put the trade in safe hands, to prevent the students from incurring debts, and to make a place where light liquors might be sold and thus a desire for strong ones avoided.[4] The account books for part of the time are preserved and show many quaint entries. The corporation in 1774 "voted that for the future the scholars residing in College shall be charged for Sweeping College and Making Beds only one Penny per week," which seems not at all extravagant.

In 1797 a fourth story was added to supply more rooms, and the building has stood since that time without change,[5] a pattern of all subsequent dormitories, till Farnam was built. It was originally built on the model of Massachusetts Hall at Harvard, and for many years in this century was the favorite haunt of sophomores. This class took the whole building and many escapades and hairbreadth escapes from tutors occurred there. Of late years it has been occupied by all classes, but still "a vacant room is seldom found in South Middle. It is the men whom you meet and the society which you enjoy, which constitute the chief charms. There is an astonishing charm about these low ceilings and these cramped walls."[6] So even to-day, in its decrepitude, it has power to fascinate, and none who ever spent sophomore year there

[1] Trumbull, II, 326; Kingsley, 15.

[2] Kingsley, 15; Trumbull, II, 325, 326.

[3] A sample buttery license is given: "*Promo licentia in promptuario vendendi vinum pomaceum, hydromelum cerevisiam fortem (non plus quam cados duodecim annuatim) saccharum rigidum tubulos, tabacum, et talia scholaribus necessaria non a dispensatore in-culina venalia.*"

[4] Bagg, Four Years at Yale, 247, 248.

[5] Yale Book, I, 442 *et seq.*

[6] Sketches of Yale life, ed. by J. A. Porter, 4–8.

t with aught but pleasurable memories. For several), the college reading room was placed on the ground ldle, but this proving inconvenient, it was removed to in the Cabinet building. Of late the Co-operative l a home there.

THE CHAPEL—ATHENÆUM.

e seven years' war, Connecticut was nearly bankrupt. ould not conquer the zealous president, and at that ined from the general assembly grants for a chapel. ege church, he was now fully reconciled to the "new l gained ascendency in the legislature.[1] The daily held in the dining hall of the old Yale College for the Sunday services, for some time, were held in the t this soon became too small, and besides, it was not purposes. The students now numbered 170; the li- o small to hold the books and apparatus. The college dividual subscriptions[2] and in April, 1761, the founda- t was opened in June, 1763, with formal exercises. The tained a chapel, which was also to be used for scholas- above that, a room for the library and apparatus. he services of the college church were held there, and here President Dwight delivered his famous "System e chapel was not finished at once; but a few years were obtained for surmounting it with a handsome e subscriptions raised for it £244, of which £100 were Jackson, M. P., the Colony's English agent; the col- £382, and then a successful appeal was made to the a debt of £327 which had been incurred, making the The Athenæum stands south of South Middle and as a chapel, when a new one was built in 1824. It was ree stories, containing recitation rooms and the libraries literary societies. It was first heated in 1820. The as moved to the lyceum early in this century, and in s taken down[5] and an octagonal tower for an observa- refracting telescope built in its place. The old spire bell, which were moved to the lyceum in 1822.[6] In was altered—made into two stories, which contain oms used by the freshmen class, and a revolving tur- vatory was added. Since the Winchester Observatory t has been erected, this one has chiefly been used by s in astronomy to familiarize them with the stars.

Clark College book, 73 (W. L. Kingsley).

. A vote to build a chapel was passed July 22, 1760. Yale Book, ey).

. College Book, 13.

438.

[5] J. L. Kingsley, 37.

[6] Yale Book, 1, 465.

INTERNAL LIFE OF THE COLLEGE.

The colony's grant in the charter has been noted; this was regularly paid for several years;[1] the last record of its being voted is found in October, 1754. In addition to this regular grant, in 1750 a committee was appointed "to make reparations and emendations in College and draw on the Treasurer for all such sums."[2] After two years they reported and the general assembly voted for that purpose £627 19*s.* 2*d.* "old tenour."[3] In October, 1766, a despairing petition came to the general assembly from the college. A committee on the petition reports a lack of funds from building the chapel and the house for the professor of divinity; that the number of students had decreased owing to war and dissatisfaction with Rector Clap's position, and that the college sadly missed the old grant of the assembly. The committee further made an estimate of the expenses for the next year and also of the receipts and found that to pay the present debt and the deficiency for the next year, £159 12*s.* was needed and they recommend a grant of that sum from the impost duty on rum collected at New London and New Haven. The committee recommend to the college authorities to revise the laws and publish them in English as well as Latin, and to make the government as nearly parental and with as few pecuniary mulcts as possible. Further, that the steward in his quarter bills insert the offenses and punishments of each student for the parent's information, and that the college yearly lay its accounts before the legislature. On hearing this report the assembly granted part of its recommendation by voting £102 10*s.* 8*d.* from the duty on rum collected at New Haven and, if the receipts there were not enough to make that amount, also from the duty collected at New London.[4]

From private persons came several gifts worth noting. Mr. Samuel Lambert, a Scotch merchant of New Haven, dying some years before this period, left £10 to the college and the rest of the principal part of his estate to be paid to the graduates, who should settle in the ministry, £3 sterling to each. Difficulties in the distribution arose and the clergymen gave their claims to the corporation in 1745. From this gift, after some trouble and the purchase of the rights of such as would not give them, was finally obtained 100 acres in Wallingford and 62 in New Haven.[5] In 1752 Benjamin Franklin[6] gave Bower's "History of the Popes" to the library, which was also enriched by Bishop Sher-

[1] Connecticut Records, IX, 256, 315, 323, 375, 386, 464, 535, 550; X, 7, 48, 78, 134, 187, 229, 274, 322. These votes show the gradual deterioration of the colony's money both "old and new tenour."

[2] Connecticut Records, IX, 550.

[3] Connecticut Records, X, 92.

[4] Connecticut Records, XII, 513.

[5] Trumbull, II, 310, 311.

[6] He gave an electrical machine in 1749 on which President Stiles, when a tutor, made the first experiments of the sort in New England. (Yale Book, I, 77.)

John Erskine's gift of their sermons in 1761, and by
, M. P.'s gift of cuts of Diocletian's Palace in 1765.
was increased by the gift of an air pump by sundry
6 and an electrical instrument from Philip Schuyler,
., in 1763.[1] Of the library, President Clap says in

library, consisting of about 4,000 volumes, well furnished with
t not many authors who have wrote within these thirty years.

nest to the library was one of £10 from Rev. Jared
worth, in 1763.[2] Among the Alumni of this period
r. Leverett Hubbard, first president of the Connec-
ociety; in 1745, Hon. William Smith, the author of a
York, and, like his father, of the class of 1719, a judge
bench of that province, Dr. Thomas Bradbury Chand-
, N. J., the Episcopalian controversionalist, and Dr.
ng, of Middletown, Conn. In the class of 1746 were
signer of the Declaration of Independence; Ezra Stiles,
f the college, and Gen. John Morin Scott, of Revolu-
President Daggett and Samuel Seabury, the first Epis-
in the United States, were of the class of 1748.

nated Gen. Gold S. Silliman, himself famous, but more
descendants, and Rev. Elizur Goodrich, D. D., who
tely connected with the college. Æneas Munson, one
of the Yale Medical School, graduated in 1753. In
s Hobart, LL. D., signer of the Constitution of the
nd Senator from New York, graduated together with
ry Edmund Fanning, the notorious Dr. Samuel Peters,
e, and Hon. Jabez Bowen, for thirty years chancellor
rsity. Silas Deane graduated a year later, and a year
enjamin Trumbull, the historian of Connecticut. The
tained Right Rev. Abraham Jarvis, the second Bishop
nd Hon. Simeon Olcott, Senator from New Hampshire.
rds graduated John Henry Livingston, president of
tgers) College, and in 1763 Stephen Mix Mitchell, later
enator. In 1765 graduated the noted Dr. Manasseh
dore Sedgwick, United States Senator from Massa-
66 the two Ingersolls graduated, Jared, son of Hon.
of 1742, the stamp distributor, and himself Federal
e-President in 1812, and Jonathan Ingersoll, an ardent
enant-governor of Connecticut.

ere kept in strict subordination within the college.[4]

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ollege, appendix.

(A. Van Name.)

all entered and graduated together, an unique instance. (J. L.

5.

The so-called freshman laws lasted till 1864 and are very curious, reminding one of fagging in English schools.

In case of a personal insult, a junior may call up a freshman and reprimand him. A sophomore, in like case, must obtain leave from a senior and then he may discipline a freshman.

No instance of flogging is found; but freshmen and "commencing sophomores" were boxed on the ear by the president in chapel. This was never put in the rules and was given up about 1760.[1]

It being the duty of the seniors to teach the Freshmen the laws, usages, and customs of the college, to this end they are empowered to order the whole Freshman class, or any particular member of it, in order to be instructed or reproved, at such time and place as they shall appoint, when and where every Freshman shall attend, answer all proper questions, and behave decently.

All undergraduates are to be uncovered and are forbidden to wear their hats (unless in stormy weather)[2] in the front door yard of the president's or professor's house, or within 10 rods of the person of the president, 8 rods of the professor, and 5 rods of the tutors. Freshmen (except in stormy weather) might not wear their hats in the "college yard" at all, until the May vacation, unless they carried something in their hands.

A Freshman shall not play with any members of an upper class, without being asked, nor is he permitted to use any acts of familiarity with them, even in study time. Freshmen are obliged to perform all reasonable errands for any superior,[3] always returning an account of the same to the person who sent them.

This privilege was much used and it was a great privation to be deprived of it for misconduct.

When a Freshman is near a gate or door, belonging to College or College-yard, he shall look around and observe, whether any of his superiors are coming to the same and, if any are coming within three rods, he shall not enter without a signal to proceed. Freshmen shall not run in College yard, or up or down stairs, or call to any one through a College window.[4]

This last provision many a worried student of later days has longed for, when the days become warm and men shout for friends in the upper stories of the buildings.

Discipline in those days was conducted chiefly by fines, a system not given up till the days of President Dwight. One of the complaints against President Clap was his excessive use of this means of punishment, it being stated that in three years over £172 had been so collected. In the laws of 1748, which remained without esssential change[5] till an English edition was published in 1772, absence from prayers cost 1 penny, tardiness, a half penny; absence from church, 4 pence; 2 and 6 pence for playing at cards or dice, or for bringing strong liquor

[1] Scribner, xi, 766 (H. A. Beers).

[2] This is a reminder that umbrellas were as yet unknown.

[3] Yale Book i, 278. Am. Jour. of Ed., v, 552 (T. D. Woolsey). The date given to these laws is 1761.

[4] Am. J. Ed. v, 564 (T. D. Woolsey).

[5] J. L. Kingsley, 46.

hilling for doing damage to the college, or jumping out
ete.[1]

e we do not know much; but from a diary of a junior
three publicly admonished for having a dance at Mil-
e later that "six made a Publick Confession for acting
d," and toward the end of the term the writer notes a
st as true to-day, that, "as vacancy grows nigh, a
n from study takes place, as it commonly has done in
e find him going to Long Island on a pleasure trip,
true to his college, he "talked a little diminutively of
rs" (Princeton students).[2] The two upper classes dis-
day in the syllogistic form;[3] on Tuesday, in the foren-
such subjects as "whether Adam knew yt Eternal
d be his doom if he eat the forbidden fruit?"[4]

heretical were supposed to be countenanced by Har-
as stiffly orthodox, so the number of students increased
hat cause. Consequently we see that, though the Har-
e more than the Yale ones from 1745 to 1752, the num-
and 179, for the next eight years, from 1753 to 1760,
numbered 254, the Harvard ones only 205.[4] The larg-
President Clap was that of 1765, which numbered 47.
1750 a literary society called Crotonia was organized,
the interest Clap took in the students.[5] This was
ut died soon after. In 1753 the Linonian society was
iam Wickham, of 1754. This venerable society sur-
and at its death was the oldest institution of the sort
college.[6] Its influence still lives in the library it
with that of its rival, Brothers in Unity, supplies the
with most of their reading material.

t day was the great occasion of the year.[7] It was held
in 1746 and 1757, when the corporation voted that,
esent calamitous and distressing war loudly calls us to
frugality and all kinds of luxury and extravagance
in a particular manner wrong and undesirable at this
the commencement shall be private.[8] Grave disorders
d on these occasions; in 1731, firing of cannon was
735, the trustees appointed a committee to suppress
t the meeting house and at college in the evening after
In 1737, drinking was forbidden during the week, and

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[1] Discourse, 47.
[2] 4.
[3] 5.
[4] of Harvard, II, 432.
[5] Yale Book, I, 77.
[6] Four years at Yale, 190-221.
[7] Yale Book, I, 369.
[8] Yale Book, I, 87.
iors might provide and give away a barrel of metheglin and some-
ncement (Harpers Monthly, 17, 11).

in 1755 freshmen were forbidden to fire great guns at the commencement, and if crackers and guns are fired, "the Elumination of the College on the evening before" is to be "wholly suppressed."[1]

But even these stringent measures were not sufficient; so five years later there was enacted a prohibition of drunkenness and riot on commencement week, and no candidate for a degree was allowed to have over 2 gallons of wine, an amount which seems ample. In 1761[2] heroic measures were resorted to, and no public commencement was held. The same course was adopted in 1762 and 1765.[3] At the time of commencement in 1761, President Clap felt obliged to come out with a card in the Connecticut Gazette:

> Whereas, on last Tuesday evening, a number of persons gathered together near the College and there and round the town fired a great number of guns, to the great disturbance and terror of his Majesties subjects, and brake the college windows and fences, and several of them had gowns on with a design to bring a scandal upon the College. These may certify that I and the Tutors several times walked among and near the rioters and could not see any scholars among them; but they appeared to be principally the people of the town, with a few strangers.[4]

In 1764 some Frenchmen in the town tried to kill the students by putting poison in the food.[5] Shortly thereafter, while the students were still sobered by their narrow escape, Whitefield, the evangelist, came to New Haven again, and was invited by President Clap (so much had times changed) to preach in the new chapel. He did so, and said it "crowned the expedition." "The president came to me as I was going off in the chaise and informed me the students were so deeply impressed by the sermon that they were gone into the chapel, and earnestly entreated me to give them one more quarter of an hour's exhortation. Not unto me, O Lord, not unto me, but unto thy free and unmerited grace be all the glory."[6] So writes the pious preacher in his journal.

During this time the curriculum was developing. The president gave "public lectures upon all those subjects which are necessary to be understood to qualify young gentlemen for the various stations and employments of life."[7] He personally corrected the students' disputations, formerly left to the unpracticed hands of the tutors, and gave to natural philosophy and mathematics part of the time formerly given to logic. In physics, Rector Pierson's manuscript had given way, after

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[1] Yale Book, I, 369.

[2] From 1760 on there was at commencement a pipe of wine, free for all, paid for by seniors (Harpers 17, 11).

[3] Yale Book, I, 369 *et seq.*

[4] Barbour's Historical Collections: Connecticut, 165.

[5] Yale Book, I, 89.

[6] Yale Book, I, 284.

[7] (Woolsey) Yale Book, II, p. 498 *et seq.* Such as the nature of civil government, the civil constitution of Great Britain, the various forms of courts, the several forms of ecclesiastical government which have obtained in the Christian church, &c. "College Book, 70.

s, to Rohault's treatise, and Clap introduced Martin's Newtonian Philosophy," which was used till out of Then President Stiles asked Dr. Price to recommend With the concurrence of Dr. Priestley, he advised utes of Natural Philosophy," which was used till 1835.[1] ear, oratory, geography, and natural philosophy were some, we learn, "make good progress in trigonometry n junior year "many understand well, surveying, navi- culation of eclipses, and some are considerable profi- ections and fluxions." We see here how much advance hematics over the earlier period. It is interesting to ong time, no Greek was regularly taught but that of ent.[2]

he course "kept the ministry in view," it was not in- ly for ministers nor did it supply the ministry alone. the graduates had become clergymen and 336 laymen, s in the first century of the college, 49 were laymen.[3]

STATE INTERVENTION.

n alienated from the college by President Clap's invin- nd so in May, 1763, a memorial was preferred to the y, signed by nine men and confirmed by five clergy- petition,[4] that the colony would appoint a committee o inquire into and rectify the abuses in the College."[5] ated that the general assembly was the founder of the such had a right to appoint visitors." "This right," t to be asserted," and they prayed for an act author- l from any and every sentence given by the authority the Governor and the Council."[6] This visitation had ed in 1758, and the controversy to which it gave rise d as a precursor of the Dartmouth College case. It citement.[7] William Samuel Johnson and James Inger- most learned lawyers in the colony, and graduates of the side of the memorialists, and the opponents of the f the college hoped to overthrow it. "President Clap e of too great consequence to be trusted in any hands nd himself prepared the reply to the petitioners. In Kent said of this:

pposed this pretension in a counter-memorial and argument, ith the confidence of a master, from his own mental resources. lf upon English authorities, in the true style of a well read fully contended that the first trustees and donors, prior to the

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y, 41 *et seq.*

, 495 *et seq.*; T. D. Woolsey.

766 *et seq.*

y, 12 *et seq.*

[5] Scribner, XI, 770.

[6] Trumbull, II, 327.

[7] J. L. Kingsley, 12 *et seq.*

[8] Trumbull, II, 328–333.

charter, were the founders and lawful visitors, and that the right of visitation passed to the trustees under the charter and then resided in the President and Fellows.[1]

He conquered; the legislature did nothing, and the project of a visitation was never revived; but many became opposed to the college and there was growing disorder among the students, in some cases doubtless inspired by outsiders. In 1765 two of the three tutors became Sandemanians and Clap told them to resign, and the third, taking offense, left with them. Their successors found public disaffection so strong that they had to resign in the summer of 1766, and Clap, weary of the strife, also wished to resign at that time. The corporation begged him to wait at least till after commencement, which he did, delivering a valedictory on that day. The corporation passed a vote of thanks for his labors, and stated that they felt obliged, with grief, to accept his resignation. He did not long survive, dying on January 7, 1767.[2] Though his stubbornness, at times, harmed the college, yet for zeal, devotion, merit, and labors toward the college he deserves to be ranked among its greatest presidents.[3]

PRESIDENT NAPHTALI DAGGETT (1766–1777).

The day that President Clap resigned, the corporation chose Rev. James Lockwood, of Wethersfield, as president and, when he declined a month later, they appointed Naphtali Daggett, Livingston professor of divinity, as president *pro tempore*, an office he held for eleven years. "Though he was expected to be a controversialist, when put in office, yet he seems to have lived at peace with all."[4] Even the mendacious Peters, in his wondrous fable, the "General History of Connecticut," was forced to speak approvingly of him and to call him "an excellent Greek and Latin scholar and reckoned a good Calvinistic divine. Though a stranger to European politeness, yet possessing a mild temper and affable disposition, the exercise of his authority is untinctured with haughtiness. Indeed he seems to have too much candour and too little bigotry to please the corporation and retain his post many years."[5] Yet he did so, until the stormy times of the Revolution induced him to retire. As a president he was not a great success. "He had very just conceptions of the manner in which a college should be governed, but was not equally happy in the mode of administering its discipline," says his successor, President Dwight. Yet his administration is marked by increased interest in the study of English and the growth of the republican spirit; while a succession of brilliant tutors supplied any deficiencies of his. During this period men of some note were Joseph Howe, John Trumbull, the author of the almost forgotten poem Me-

[1] Yale Book, 1, 91.
[2] He left an astronomical quadrant to the college in his will. J. L. Kingsley, 44.
[3] J. L. Kingsley, 12 *sq.*
[4] Dwight.
[5] Peters, 160.

nuel Wales, later professor of divinity, Timothy
ph Buckminster held the tutorial office.[1]
e first year of his teaching, wrote a poem called the
ness," a satire on the college course as then pursued.
he said, "to point out, in a clear and concise manner,
rs that hinder the advances of education. The mere
ient languages, of the abstruser parts of mathematics,
earches of metaphysics is of little advantage in any
ssion in life and it would be more beneficial in every
ucation to take pains in teaching the elements of ora-
r of the English tongue, and the elegancies of style
"[2] In the poem, college manners are gracefully de-
picture of the student fop of the time is very cleverly
wrote, during his tutorship, an epic, "The Conquest of
ong ago has been retired to upper shelves. But these
han write;[3] they inspired the students with a desire
terpieces of their native tongue. As a consequence
tober 23, 1776, when Dwight had been for five years a
tion voted—

nade to this board by Mr. Dwight, one of the tutors, at the de-
enior class, requesting that they might be permitted to hire the
nstruct them the current year in rhetoric, history, and the belles
ering the motion, the corporation, being willing to encourage
the youth in those branches of polite literature, do comply with
ed it may be done with the approbation of the parents, or guar-
s.[4]

A SECOND PROFESSOR.

nt Daggett's time, few gifts came from individuals.
r Trumbull, better known as "Brother Jonathan,"
non worth $100, and Mrs. Elizabeth Smith, of Weth-
gift of $200, and we notice with amusement that the
p-of-war *Satisfaction*, gave the first volume of "Ken-
Bible."[5]
ature came timely aid when it was needed. In Octo-
lege accounts were laid before the assembly, and Yale
debt £159 8*s.* 6*d.*, "including a balance of £49 8*s.* 6*d.*
d repairs of old college, and coloring windows of new
l are now necessary, which will cost £63 11*s.* 6*d.*" To
assembly grants £223 from that convenient duty on
ollege was like the sieve of the daughters of Danaus,
ore, and the next fall Yale was in debt £122 16*s.* 10*d.*,
needed for a new library and for finishing the entries

ersity 38, Yale Book 1, 94.

4.

[4] Yale Book, 1, 99.
[5] Baldwin's Yale College.
[6] Conn. Rec., XII, 630.

of the brick college, a decent fence for the college yard, and more convenient kitchen and dining room." For the debt and finishing the library, the sum of £182 16*s.* 10*d.* was given, but apparently the assembly was as little anxious then to build the Yale fence, as the faculty recently was to keep it.[1] In 1769, the college debt was £226 11*s.* 11*d.*, but only £83 4*s.* 11*d.* were given toward it by the assembly; all these grants being from the duty on rum.[2] The next year the college was more fortunate, and got an appropriation for the whole of its debt, £216 4*s.* 6*d.*[3]

Encouraged by this, the corporation hoped that the legislature would endow a second professorship, and, in that hope, appointed, in September, 1770, Rev. Nehemiah Strong, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy. He was born in 1728 at Northampton, and graduated from Yale in 1755. The office he held till December, 1781, when his loyalist principles and a lack of funds led to his removal.[4] Peters says that he is "of amiable temper, and merits his appointment."

The fair hopes of a colonial endowment of this chair found no realization; the next year the legislature made no grant at all, and, in May, 1772, it only gave the wharfage, from an extension of Long Wharf, to be built by lottery.[5] In October of that year, "to establish such durable supports as shall best answer the great purposes of founding" the college, a joint committee of the two houses was appointed "to take into consideration the state of education and learning in said school; the government, laws, and constitution of the same, to look into the several donations at any time made for the support of said school, the revenues arising therefrom, and the state in which they now are, and devise the most effectual measures to render the institution most extensively useful, and the support thereof permanent and lasting, and to confer with the president and fellows of said college concerning the same."[6] The only pecuniary benefit the college received was £180 10*s.* 9*d.* in bills of credit of the last emission, for its debt from the past year.[7]

The next year nothing was given, but in May, 1774, £107 7*s.* 6*d.* were appropriated for the debt owed by the college in the preceding fall.[8] Then came the Revolution and we find little more aid from the State for twenty years.

THE END OF THE COLONIAL PERIOD.

The progress of free ideas was showing itself in Yale, as well as in the country at large. In 1768 the students were for the first time arranged on the catalogue in alphabetical order, instead of that formerly

[1] Conn. Rec., XIII, 104.
[2] Conn. Rec., XIII, 261.
[3] Conn. Rec., XIII, 396.
[4] Yale Book, I, 106. Dexter Y. U., 57. J. L. Kingsley, 19. Peters, 160.
[5] Conn. Rec., XIII, 623.
[6] Conn. Rec., XIV, 36.
[7] Conn. Rec., XIV, 63.
[8] Conn. Rec., XIV, 323.

they were placed according to their social station.[1] Humphreys, being refused admission to the Linonian ht of his being a freshman, "stood up for the honor of ing found two Seniors, three Juniors, and two Sopho- willing that Freshmen might be admitted to a literary thirteen of his classmates, fought for and established ity." Thus was formed the Brothers in Unity, which ler rival to admit freshmen and maintained a prosper- many years, dying at the same time as Linonia. Oli- a senior, had also much to do with its founding.[2] It ote in Humphrey's further career that, after gradua- came Washington's aide-de-camp, and later was sent Spain, whence, on his return, he brought the Merino ntry.

ion of the progress of democracy was the printing of n 1772 in English instead of Latin, at the request of

l now gained such a position that even the recreant ak in praise of it. He says:

raphy, History, and Logic are well taught; but there is a lack ch, and Spanish, Oratory, Music, and politeness, are neglected y. The Students have two hours play with foot-ball every day, a better than men or manners. The Library is not to be com- or Bodleian. It contains eight or ten thousand volumes and . Lately there has been obtained new and valuable apparatus losophy. Even at present, I may truly say Yale College exceeds perhaps the learning of its scholars all over British America. is parting fling.][4] Were the corporation less rigid and more in- e reasonable amusements and polite accomplishments among the eatly add to the fame and increase of the college, and the students by every stranger to have been educated in Connecticut.[5]

ously spoken of commencement day and a brief ac- ises will not be out of place. Then, as now, the com- eld in Center church, whither the students marched he prayer by the president came first, then the Latin hen the syllogistic disputes; after these were heard s Magistrates" of those who returned to take their Then were discussed such subjects as "An Corpora na Corporali crucientur," or "An Praxis Inoculationis oni congruat." Next came the valedictory, by one

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e, pp. 130 sq.

anguage was given up about the time of the Revolution. (Wool-

atement that "the charter only permitted masters' and bache- lege has presumed to grant doctor's degrees," and he refers to ccusing them of usurping privileges. (Peters, pp. 94 and 156.) f Connecticut, pp. 156 and 161.

taking his master's degree, and last, the conferring of degrees. All orations were, of course, in Latin, and were spoken from the front gallery, till the time of Daggett, when a stage was erected. In disputes, the speakers stood in the side galleries. Thus were commencements till 1787; though two English orations were introduced a little before that date.[1] In the New York Journal for September 29, 1768, we find a quaint notice:

The public are advised that in the 5th Master's Thesis printed this year, which is marked by an index, to be disputed, viz.: "An signis a mola actione, &c.," a very material error escaped the Correction of the Press: Under it stands *Affirmat;* whereas it should have been *Negat*, as was designed.[2]

Under President Daggett graduated, in 1767, Samuel Wales, later the professor of divinity; John Treadwell, governor of Connecticut; Nathaniel Emmons, the great theologian; and John Trumbull, the poet whose tutorship has been already mentioned. In 1769, Timothy Dwight, who was later to be president of the college, received his degree, as did David Humphreys[3] in 1771. In 1772, graduated Abraham Baldwin, a signer of the United States Constitution and first president of the University of Georgia, as did also Gen. William Hull, governor of Michigan, who capitulated at Detroit in 1812. In 1773, James Hillhouse, later the commissioner of the State's school fund, and Nathan Hale, of heroic memory, left this Alma Mater. Stephen R. Bradley and Samuel W. Dana, both later United States Senators, were in the class of 1775, and to the same dignity came Chauncey Goodrich and James Watson, who graduated in the next year. In 1777, graduated Ebenezer Fitch, first president of Williams College, Jared Mansfield, United States Surveyor-General, and Nathaniel Chipman, so intimately associated with the history of New York.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

Dr. Benjamin Pomeroy and Eleazar Wheelock were sympathizers with Whitefield and so out of sympathy with Yale and Harvard, though they both were alumni of the former. Partly out of great admiration for Dr. Wheelock and partly in indignation at the hostile spirit Yale had shown him[4] and his school, young men, especially from eastern Connecticut, went to Dartmouth, at the first beginning of the college; though to reach it they had to travel 160 miles through the wilderness and it was only 40 miles to Yale. The first name on the Dartmouth triennial is that of Levi Frisbie, of Branford, who was fitted for college by Dr. Wheelock and entered the class of 1771 at Yale. In senior year, however, he left and went to Dartmouth; two others out of the first

[1] J. L. Kingsley, 45.

[2] Magazine of American History, XIII, 596.

[3] Dwight, Humphreys, Joel Barlow, Trumbull, and three others living in Hartford were called the Seven Connecticut Pleiades. Scribner's, XI, 773 *sq.*

[4] See the account of Indian Education in Chap. II.

from Connecticut. In 1772 both of Dartmouth's
on Connecticut; in 1773, 5 out of 6; in 1774, 2 out of
f 11; in 1776, 11 out of 13; in 1785, 9 out of 19; in
In all, of the 254 graduates up to 1790, 122 came
and 22 from the town of Lebanon alone, where
preached. This is the only time since 1700 when
number of Connecticut youths went outside of their
ation, and the fact deserves mention. This move-
ubtless lessened Yale of many graduates.

OUTBREAK OF THE REVOLUTION.

was a severe blow to the college. Many of the stu-
their country's battles and their place was filled,
nbers went by those who entered the college to
[2] In addition to this, the State subsidy was cut off,
essaries of life advanced, and the steward was often
ouman food for the students.
rm of war many students left, some, as Ebenezer
arts a general rush to arms at the news from
unker Hill four officers at least were Yale graduates,
not least, New Haven formed a company of soldiers
any is said to have been the first one reviewed by
he was appointed general for it drilled before him
ew Haven, on the way to Cambridge, and escorted
ies Lee, of the [illegible], Noah Webster leading the com-
This was Washington's first escort in New England.[3]
[illegible] of the students of Yale College, the
seminary [illegible] during the unfa-
The affairs of the colonies, and the senior class
[illegible] the authority of college with a
[illegible]
[illegible] Washington was desirous
[illegible] of the British. For this
[illegible] a young Yale graduate,
[illegible] was discovered on his return
[illegible] even the formality of
[illegible] lamented that he had
[illegible] Hale's example spurred on
[illegible]

[illegible]
[illegible] Yale book, 1, 88.
[illegible]
[illegible]
[illegible] Conn. in Revolution, [illegible]
[illegible] Conn. in Revolution, [illegible] et seq.

Alarms from the British and the high price of food disturbed the college. On December 10, 1776, President Daggett sent the students home "until the end of the winter vacation" (January 8, 1777) on account of the difficulty of their subsisting in New Haven, "for want of regular commons." Matters grew no better, and the perplexed corporation, on April 1, 1777, voted:

Whereas the difficulties of subsisting the students in this town are so great, the price of provisions and board so high, and the avocations from study, occasioned by the state of public affairs so many—difficulties which still increase and render it very inconvenient for the students to reside here at present, and yet, considering the great importance that they be under the best advantages of instruction and learning circumstances will permit—voted—

That, in the opinion of this board, it is necessary to provide some other convenient place or places, where the classes may reside under their respective tutors, until God in His kind providence shall open a door for their return to this fixed and ancient seat of learning; and,

Whereas it may be necessary in this time of war and public danger, for the security of the library and other valuable papers that they be removed to some distance from the sea, voted—

That the president, Mr. Williams, and Mr. Treasurer Trumbull be a committee to do what they shall judge proper in that respect, who are empowered to remove the whole or part of the library and all the appurtenances of the college to such place as they shall think most convenient and safe.[1]

The same day a letter was ordered to be sent to the civil authority and selectmen of New Haven, as follows:

GENTLEMEN: Whereas, from the peculiar difficulties of the present time, the president and fellows of Yale College in this town find themselves under the disagreeable necessity of leaving the college buildings empty for a season, and think some special care is necessary for their preservation, in particular that no troops that may be stationed here or pass through the town (unless absolute necessity requires it) be quartered in them, they take the liberty to address you with their sincere desire that, as far as in you lies, you would have an inspection of them and use your endeavors to preserve them from harm and damage. The president and fellows are extremely sorry that they are obliged to take this step, but would be more so should the college buildings be damaged and rendered unfit for the purpose for which they were designed, since they are determined to call the students to this, their ancient and fixed seat of abode, as soon as circumstances will permit, and hope you will kindly accept this trust and inspection, by which you will greatly oblige your assured friends and humble servants.[1]

Shortly after signing this President Naphtali Daggett resigned his office, retaining, however, his professorship of divinity. Matters were indeed in a bad state when this second scattering of the students took place. All through the month of April arrangements were being made for the removal. It was finally decided that for the summer term the freshmen should go to Farmington, the sophomores and juniors to Glastonbury, under their tutors, and "Tutor Dwight is to find a place for the seniors where they may be under his care and government," which place turned out to be Wethersfield. Prof. Strong was asked to go to Glastonbury and President Daggett, as professor of

[1] Yale Book, 1, 100.

divinity, "to visit the different classes as often as he could with convenience."[1] The college bell might go to Glastonbury if the cost of conveyance were paid.[2]

SECTION IV.—PRESIDENT EZRA STILES (1777–1795).

THE NEW PRESIDENT.

The first thing to be done was to get a new president and reorganize the college. At this time Connecticut had 22 regiments in the field out of a population of barely 200,000. Tutor Dwight resigned at this very moment to become a chaplain of one of these; the students were scattered over the State, and the people, alienated by President Clap's decided policy, had never become reconciled. On May 27, 1777, the vote was passed "that the Senior class be dismissed on the 20th of July, without any public examination or exhibition," and thenceforth commencements were private till 1781.[1]

In these straits the corporation wisely chose Rev. Ezra Stiles as president in September, 1777. He had been born in New Haven, Conn., in 1727, and was graduated from Yale in 1746. In 1749 he was made tutor and held the office till 1755, pronouncing a Latin oration when Franklin visited the college in the latter year. In 1752 he delivered an oration at the semicentennial of the college. In 1749 he was licensed to preach, and four years later he was admitted to the bar.[3] At the expiration of his tutorship he was called to the church in Newport, R. I., where he preached till his congregation was broken up by the war.[4]

In 1759 he corresponded with Prof. Winthrop about a comet, and he took observations of the transit of Venus in 1769. Beginning in 1773 he carried on a correspondence in Hebrew with Hagim Isaac Carigal, rabbi of the synagogue at Newport.[5] When his church in Newport was broken up he preached at Portsmouth, N. H., and was there when the call to the presidency reached him. He came in March, 1778, to New Haven to confer with the corporation, and found all in his favor.[6] But he objected to the imposition of creeds and would not accept the office till the corporation repealed their act of 1753, requiring religious tests,[7] and also promised to have permanent professors as soon as possible. Then on March 19 he resigned his pastorship in Newport, accepted the presidency the next day, and when the year for which he had been engaged in Ports-

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[1] Yale Book, I, 101.
[2] Scribner, XI, 770 *et seq.*
[3] Yale Book, I, 102 *et seq.*; J. L. Kingsley, 27, 28.
[4] J. L. Kingsley, 28; Scribner, XI, 770 *et seq.*
[5] J. L. Kingsley, 28.
[6] J. L. Kingsley, 21.
[7] Except an assent to the Saybrook platform. Dexter, Y. U., 46.

mouth was ended June, he went to New Haven.[1] He was not an ecclesiastical partisan, but a moderate Calvinist with catholic sympathies. His zeal for civil and religious liberty was great, and he was active in trying to abolish the slave trade. In politics he was an ardent patriot,[2] while as an antiquarian and orientalist he was especially famous. His curiosity was eager and credulous, as may be seen by those who take the trouble to read that quaint production of his, the "History of Three of the Judges of Charles I." He has been called the best scholar of his time in New England, and it is said that before the Revolution he would have been elected president of Harvard, if he had only been a graduate of that institution.[3] He wrote to the head of the Jesuits' college in Mexico concerning discoveries of Catholic missions in the Northwest; to the Greek bishop in Syria, asking for an account of Gentiles beyond the Caspian, "with reference to the remains of the ten tribes," and to Sir William Jones, suggesting search for early copies of the Pentateuch among the Black Jews in India.[4] At his death he left behind him a mass of valuable manuscripts, now in the college library. They consist of 5 volumes of an Itinerary, 15 volumes of a diary kept for forty years, a volume of Ecclesiastical Statistics for New England, 6 volumes of thermometric observations, several volumes of transcripts concerning New England history, a volume of oriental writings, a volume of statistics obtained from thirty years' experience in raising silkworms, and a great amount of correspondence from various celebrated men.[5]

Of this man, with such varied tastes, Chancellor Kent said:

President Stiles's zeal for civil and religious liberty was kindled at the altar of the English and New England Puritans, and it was animating and vivid. A more consistent and devoted friend to the Revolution and independence of the country never existed. He had anticipated it as early as the year 1760, and his whole soul was enlisted in favor of every measure which led on gradually to the formation and establishment of the American Union. The frequent appeals which he was accustomed to make to the heads and hearts of his pupils concerning the slippery paths of youth, the grave duties of life, the responsibilities of men, and the perils, hopes, and honors and destiny of our country, will never be forgotten by those who heard them, and especially when he came to touch, as he often did, with a master's hand and prophet's fire, on the bright vision of the future prosperity and splendor of the United States. Take him for all in all, this extraordinary man was undoubtedly one of the purest and most gifted men of his age. In addition to his other eminent attainments, he was clothed with humility, with tenderness of heart, with disinterested kindness, and with the most artless simplicity. He was distinguished for the dignity of his deportment, the politeness of his address, and the urbanity of his manners. Though he was uncompromising in his belief and vindication of the great

[1] Yale Book, I. 102. Fifteen years in Chapel (Porter).

[2] College Book, p. 78 *et seq.*

[3] Scribner, XI, 770 *et seq.* Harvard and Stanford are the only prominent American institutions for higher learning which have not had Yale men as presidents.

[4] Scribner, XI, 773.

[5] Yale Literary Magazine, 26, 244. (F. B. Dexter.)

es of the Protestant faith, he was, nevertheless, of the most
ic temper, resulting equally from the benevolence of his dispo-
of the Gospel.[1]

nal appearance his biographer says:

w and small stature, of a very delicate structure, and a well-pro-
eyes were of a dark-gray color, and in the moment of contem-
netrating. His voice was clear and energetic; his countenance,
ation, was expressive of mildness and benignity; but, if occa-
me the index of majesty and emotion.[2]

d this "truly academic man," whose reputation as a
college "dignity abroad,"[3] the next thing was his in-
sident, which occurred in the college chapel on July 8,
made professor of ecclesiastical history.[4] There were
duates, of whom 15 were absent, but all the rest reas-
owns where they had been scattered.[5] It was a grand
ndergraduates, Bachelors of Art, the Beadle, and But-
ollege Charter, Records, Key and Seal, the Senior Pre-
e of the Hon. Council and the President Elect, the
ation, the Professors of Divinity and Natural Philoso-
he Reverend Ministers, Masters of Arts, Respectable
marched in procession. The exercises passed off in
nt Stiles delivering an oration—in Latin, of course—
edia, or general system of universal literature," and
was a dinner in the college hall.[6]

worthy of note, the oath, administered by Col. Jabez
new one adopted by Connecticut, which declared it
r as follows:

do swear, by the name of the ever-living God, that you will be
he State of Connecticut, as a free and independent State, and
duty, as a good and faithful subject of the said State, in sup-
berties, and privileges of the same.[7]

naugaration came the presentation day, so called be-
ing class was then presented to the president by the
this time thirty were presented, "a beautiful sight,"
nt in his diary. "The *Diploma Examinatorium*, with
nutes inscribed upon it, was delivered to the presi-
t to the vice bedellus, directing him to read it. He
ned it to the president, to be deposited among the col-
erpetuam rei memoriam. The senior thereupon made
Latin speech and presented the candidates for the
ge. This presentation the president in a Latin speech

28, *et seq.*; Kingsley's "Life of Stiles," in Sparks' American
From Kent's Φ B K Oration, 1831.
(From Holmes's Stiles.)

[7] Barbour's Connecticut, 178.
[7] Woolsey's Historical Discourse, 117.

accepted and addressed the gentlemen examiners and the candidates and gave the latter liberty to return home till commencement. At about 3 p. m. the afternoon exercises were appointed to begin. At 3:30 the bell tolled and the assembly of ladies and gentlemen convened in the chapel. The president introduced the exercises in a Latin speech and then delivered the *Diploma Examinatorium* to the vice bedellus, who, standing on the pulpit stairs, read it publicly. Then succeeded a cliosophic oration[1] in Latin by Sir Meigs (this was Josiah Meigs, later professor of mathematics), poetical composition in English by Sir Barlow[2] (Joel Barlow, later United States minister to France), and other performances by Oliver Wolcott, who became Secretary of the United States Treasury; Noah Webster, of dictionary fame; Ashur Miller and Jephaniah Swift, whom Connecticut placed as judges in her highest court; Noah Smith, who held the same position in Vermont, and Uriah Tracy, United States Senator.[3] Verily President Stiles had a distinguished class with which to begin his presidency.

In November, 1777, a salary of £160 was voted President Stiles—

One-fourth in wheat, one-fourth in corn, one-fourth in pork, and one-fourth in beef, or an equivalent in money, together with the use of the president's house and lot, which are to be kept in good repair by the corporation, and of 10 acres of land in Yorkshire quarter with the usual perquisites. The corporation will also be at the expense of removing[4] his family to New Haven, and, providing the above encouragement prove insufficient, they mean in all future time to act a generous part towards him and will endeavor that he be supported, according to their ability, in a manner suitable to the dignity of his station.[5]

YALE IN THE REVOLUTION.

Many of Yale's sons went into the Revolution and did valiantly, and some merit especial mention. Among them were Maj. Gen. David Wooster, of the class of 1738, who was mortally wounded while rallying his troops during the Tryon raid of 1777; Col. Hitchcock, of the class of 1761, whose brigade at Princeton was entitled to a great share of the glory of that victory; Col. John Brown, of the class of 1771, killed in action in 1780; Lieut. Col. Isaac Sherman, of the class of 1770, commanded a battalion at the storming of Stony Point in 1779; Roger Welles, of the class of 1775, was a captain in the Yorktown campaign of 1781; Brigade-Major Mark Hopkins, of the class of 1758, died in camp at White Plains, in 1776; Capt. David Bushnell, of the class of 1775, invented the first torpedo; Oliver Wolcott signed the Declaration of Independence. Gen. James Wadsworth, of the class of 1748; Gold Selleck Silliman, Philip Burr Bradley, John Chester, Fisher

[1] Wm. Sam. Johnson delivered this oration in 1744.

[2] Woolsey, Historical Discourse, p. 121.

[3] Four Years at Yale, pp. 480–499.

[4] The General Assembly appropriated £242 10.6 for this purpose. (Baldwin's History of Yale College.

[5] Yale Book, I, 104.

muel Wyllys served with credit in the Connecticut
the Massachusetts troops were Col. John Patterson
ielson. The war effected great changes in the college
and broke up many old customs, from their disuse
ring of the students and also from the growth of a
2

9, the British under Gen. Tryon landed near West
ed upon the city. The town was thrown into a fer-
and many volunteers went out to resist the approach
mong these was good President Daggett, who was
y them while loading and firing upon the invaders.
uarter, but they threatened to kill him. His life was
y William Chandler, a tory, who had formerly been
3 They asked him "What did you fire upon us for?"
use it is the exercise of war." And when they asked
ke up arms, if released, he answered with dauntless
r believe I shall, if I have an opportunity." They
ked him with their bayonets, bruised him with the
guns, and, swearing at him, made him march before
ven. When he arrived there, he said afterwards:

rom an officer to be carried into the Widow Lyman's and laid
ay the rest of the day and the succeeding night in such acute
n as I never felt before.[4]

ered from this cruel and barbarous treatment, but
ear later, on November 25, 1780. The next March
nters in his diary: "Occupied with taking inventory
s estate, £116 silver money, of which about £100 in

rcifully spared the college buildings in their pillaging,
esident Clap's papers, which were never recovered.[6]
1779, President Stiles put a notice in the newspapers

e College are hereby notified that the present winter vacation
ght from the 4th of next month. As this is occasioned by the
steward finds in procuring flour or bread, it is earnestly re-
s that they would assist in furnishing the necessary supplies.[7]

idea of some of the difficulties of the college during
l. Over a year later another notice throws light on
n November 2, 1780, "the steward of Yale College

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nor Roll in the American Revolution," H. P. Johnston. Yale
ohnston.
et seq.
of Connecticut, 380.
al Collections, 174, 175.
azine, 36 244 (F. B. Dexter).

al Collections, 179.

wants to purchase a quantity of butter and cheese, for which he will pay the best kind of rock salt, molasses, continental or State's money, or part in hard money."[1]

When Prof. Strong left in 1781 the president found himself without any assistants but the tutors, and well was it for the college that he was so versatile. In 1780 he writes:

The business of the professor of divinity devolves upon me, and, besides my history lecture, I weekly give a public dissertation on astronomical subjects, beside my private or chamber lecture on theology every Saturday afternoon; and, besides these, I attend every day the recitations of the senior and junior classes in philosophy.[2]

At his accession to office he records the curriculum. It is as follows:

Freshmen: Virgilius, Ciceronis Orationes, Graec. Test., Ward's Arithmetic.

Sophomore: Graecum Testament, Horatius, Lowth's English Grammar, Watts's Logic, Guthrie's Geography, Hammond's Algebra, Holmes's Rhetoric, Ward's Geometry, Vincent's Catechism (Saturday), Ward's Mathematics.

Junior: Ward's Trigonometry, Atkinson and Watts's Trigonometry; Graec. Test., Cicero de Oratore, Martin's Philosophic Grammar and Philosophy (3 vols.), Vincent (Saturday).

Senior: Locke "Human Understanding," Wollaston "Religion of Nature Delineated," and for Saturday Wollebius Amesii Medulla, Graec. Test. (or Edwards on the Will, sometime discontinued), Pres. Clap's Ethics.[2]

Thus we see that the college was growing and steadily raising its curriculum, so as to keep abreast of the times.

In 1781 occurred again a public commencement, as the clouds of war were breaking away. At that occasion President Stiles delivered a Hebrew oration on Oriental literature in the morning and a Latin oration in the afternoon.

From 1782 to 1792 he lectured in the chapel on natural philosophy to fill the vacancy in that chair.[3]

A NEW PROFESSOR.

In 1781 Rev. Abraham Baldwin was made professor of divinity[4] and on his declination Rev. Samuel Wales was chosen and installed June 12, 1782.[3] He was an "attractive and fervent preacher, thorough and sound theologically, fervently pious, and had a singular power of eloquence."[5] He had been a tutor, and after 1770 the pastor at Milford. In 1783 he was "attacked by a nervous disorder, from which he never again was entirely free"[6] and "which gradually became an incurable epilepsy and produced occasional insanity."[5] This finally caused his retirement in 1793.[6] President Porter says of him: "Profs. Daggett and Wales were both of them able and discriminating theologians of the type of their day, and were soundly Calvinistic, of the school of Ed-

[1] Barbour's Historical Collections, 179.
[2] Yale Book, II, 498 (Woolsey).
[3] Yale Book, I, 106.
[4] J. L. Kingsley, 19.
[5] New Englander, 16, 438 *et seq.*
[6] Dexter, Y. U., 43.

retirement Dr. Joseph Lathrop was chosen his suc-
d. About this time Silas Deane suggested that there
ssor of French at Yale. In a letter to Stiles he said:

e liberty to propose, should it be agreeable to you and the rev-
patronize the design, soliciting assistance from some of my
nds in France to establish a professorship of the French language
to make a collection of the writings of their most celebrated
ary. I have repeatedly mentioned the proposal, in general, to
is, and have no doubt it may be carried into execution.[2]

l of it; but, for some reason, the plan was not suc-

HT AGAIN INTO HARMONY WITH CONNECTICUT.

s's chief title to honor in connection with Yale is that
k the College to its historic place, in harmony with
d all classes of people in the State."[3]

stored good discipline to the college, he went to work
ejudices against it, which had existed since the times
. The abolition of the test laws softened the dislike
re were many complaints against the government of
solely in the hands of ministers.[4] Stiles's election
y is said to have been made by the urgency of men
State, who believed that he could reconcile the col-
and thus the institution could again receive aid.

nd again in January, 1778, a committee of the gen-
t the corporation to try to obtain the election of lay-
rd in return for a grant for professorships, books, and
Stiles, before taking his office, made a plan for the
college into a university by public grants, creating
tory, etc., and visited Governor Trumbull, in Novem-
his views, which he found were "not the Charter to
four Civilians to be chosen into the next vacancies in
f Yale College. Nothing short will give radical Heal-
ion."[5]

er side would yield; the corporation refused to admit
legislature refused all petitions for aid, and said
undeserving of public assistance."[6] Through this
about that the income, though managed with ex-
, was altogether too limited to permit the expecta-

years in Yale College chapel, J. L. Kingsley, 19.
ok, I, 107.
Book, 78.
ok, I, 106.
astical Constitution of Yale College, p. 422.
ok, I, 108.

tions of the public to be realized, and this spirit of alienation regularly prevented the success of every attempt to increase the funds.[1]

In an election sermon by President Stiles, delivered in 1783, we find the college "recommended to the smiles of government. May we not humbly ask of the public that they would be pleased to build us another house or the necessary edifices for the reception and accommodation of the youth; but about one third of the students being provided for in the present college edifice." He goes on to ask for "an enlargement of the public library, a complete apparatus for experimental philosophy, premiums for stimulating genius in every branch of literature, endowments of professorships, particularly those of philosophy, law, and medicine," in which last the university idea comes forth again. He thanks the State for former aid, and proceeds:

> Some unhappy differences of sentiment (together with the war) have interrupted the stream of public munificence. But is there no balm in Gilead to heal the wound; is there no way to accommodate and adjust matters, so as to conciliate the friendship of the State towards its university?

This question he answers with another, indicating the course eventually followed:

> Should this State be pleased to endow two or three professorships and appoint a board of civilians to elect the professors, in concurrence with the present corporation, and see that the moneys granted by the State were applied to the use to which they were appropriated by the general assembly—might not this give satisfaction?[2]

In 1784 the opponents of Yale petitioned the legislature that the State would establish a rival college, or alter Yale's charter; but this attack was warded off.[3]

Now came to President Stiles's aid "James Hillhouse, treasurer of the college, to whom the institution is at least as much indebted for its prosperity as to any other benefactor whatever, and who is the author of several other plans and efforts which have not a little promoted its best interests." He planned the addition of laymen to the corporation, to reconcile opponents, and because "the wisdom of such men could not fail of being eminently conducive to the welfare of this college."[4] Influential men were induced by Stiles to lend aid, and, in October, 1791, a committee was appointed by the legislature to confer with the corporation of the college.[3]

A few days before their report, in May 1792,[5] President Stiles conferred with them in Hartford and returned discouraged, thinking they

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[1] Dwight's Travels, I, 172. Remarks on the Present Situation of Yale College, 1817 (J. L. Kingsley).

[2] Election Sermon, 93-94.

[3] Yale Book, I, 109.

[4] Dwight's Travels, I, 172.

[5] Previous to 1792 the college funds yearly was £800 from tuition, and about the same from productive funds. Hist. of N. E., 506.

at the laymen should be a majority of the corporation
iven. But suddenly the clouds lifted and an act was
President Stiles writes with rejoicing:

usion, beyond all expectation! Especially that the civilians
minority in the corporation.[1]

had made an unexpectedly favorable report. They

ion disposed to communicate, without reserve, every circum-
e care and management of the institution under their govern-
exercises of the respective classes have of late years undergone
ons, so as the better to accommodate the education of the under-
ent state of literature. We further find that the treasury is in
tion than we apprehended. In justice to the corporation we
that their finances have been managed with great dexterity,
my.[2]

ed the need of a new building,[3] an enlargement of the
for a professor of mathematics and natural philos-
e in the tutors' salaries.[5] The act passed after this re-
the arrearages of certain State taxes, due in paper
lition that the governor, lieutenant-governor, and the
nts should be added to the corporation. The clerical
er, had left to itself the right of filling its own vacan-
ement, the corporation accepted unanimously, after
wo days and consultation with many of its friends.[7]
a surrender than it seems at first sight; for it was pos-
hese eight laymen might be "indifferentists" in mat-
nd, if all of them were present, they might outnum-
members, unless the latter were equally regular in
h thing has generally happened.[8] None but good
e from this addition of laymen.

1792, the new board, nineteen in number, first met[9]
o reap the fruits of this grant. The original act left
amount at the disposal of the legislature; but in 1796,
t petitioned for this also and it was relinquished, for a
$13,000 by the college. The total amount from these
stimated at $40,629.80, of which part was appropri-
dings and the rest put into deferred United States

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tical Constitution of Yale College, 423.
, 1, 109. J. L. Kingsley, 20.
2,500.
they recommended £500. (Yale Book, 1, 109, 458.)
dred pounds were recommended for this.
Travels, 1, 172.
tical Constitution of Yale College, 423.
tical Constitution of Yale College, 424 and 412.
N. E., 506.

stock, not available till 1800.[1] President Dwight thus sums up the results of President Stiles' successful labors:

In consequence of this legislative benefaction, the trustees purchased the whole front of the square on the northwest side of the green and erected on it three new academical buildings[2] and a house for the president; made handsome addition to the library; procured complete philosophical and chemical apparatus; and established three new professorships.[3]

UNION HALL—SOUTH COLLEGE.

There was urgent need for a new building. That wondrous architectural triumph, "Yale College," with its sky-blue walls was partly demolished in 1776, as it was much out of repair. The hall and kitchen at the south end of the structure were left till 1782, and then they were also torn down.[4]

In that year a new dining hall to fill the need was voted by the corporation, at their June meeting, and £400[5] were appropriated for it. The original dimensions were 60 by 30 feet and it was placed in the rear of the other buildings, where it stood until the summer of 1888, when, after being partly destroyed by a fire, it was torn down. On December 11, 1782, it was opened, the foundation stone having been laid in the October before, and at that time 105 of the students ate there in commons. In the northwest part of the cellar were the ovens for preparing food; in the hall above, seated by classes, the students ate under the tutors' vigilant eyes. Till 1815, they had cider for dinner, each drinking in turn from the pitcher. The poor students served as waiters, and many are the stories told of the uproarious conduct of the students when the food did not suit them. It is said that in one single term 600 tumblers and 30 coffee pots were carried off. In 1803 the building was enlarged and, when a new hall was built for commons in 1820, the old hall was turned over to the scientists for a laboratory. Thirty feet were later added for a lecture room, where Silliman for many years held the students intent with his novel experiments. It is said that many ladies came to these lectures.[6] Latterly, as new buildings were built, the old laboratory remained unused, except for storing furniture, and was a blot on the campus till the removal.

This building, however, did not supply the need of a dormitory, and all who could not find rooms in Connecticut Hall had to board in the town. This was not viewed as desirable, and, when the legislature made its generous grant, the corporation at once turned its attention to this need. Up to this time, with the expenditures and receipts barely

[1] J. L. Kingsley, 38.

[2] South, Lyceum, and North Middle.

[3] Chemistry in 1800, Law in 1801 Languages and Ecclesiastical History, 1805. Dwight's Travels, I, 173.

[4] Dwight's Travels, I, 170.

[5] It finally cost £558 12*s.* 6*d.* (Yale Book, I, 106). Yale Book, I, 453, A. W. Wright.

[6] Yale Book, I, 453. This was one of the first, if not the very first, experiment in university extension. (Four years at Yale, 238-247. J. L. Kingsley, 37.)

bout £1,000, nothing could be done. First they voted
ı of the existing buildings, and then, changing their
ould be to the south. The corner stone was laid
d it was finished July 7, 1794. "In commemoration
vilians with the old board of officers, it was called
This name it has long since exchanged for "South
erations of students have found shelter within it. It
popularity, both from its position looking on Chapel
ence Corner, and because it was one of the few
h open fires were allowed. The new recitation build-
and darkens it, and its removal is now (1893) decreed
the Vanderbilt Dormitory. But in its day it has done
d has well answered its purpose. It is interesting to
slative committee, recommending its erection in 1792,
of college "has a tendency to introduce an unsteady,
takes off the attention of the student from the proper
rsuit, and leads him to form unprofitable, idle, and
ıs."[2]

WTH OF PHILOSOPHICAL DEPARTMENT.

Meigs (Yale College, 1778) was made professor of
natural philosophy, and entered on his office Novem-
ot formally inducted till the 4th of the next month.
t gave him the keys of the philosophical department,
red an inaugural oration in Latin. He was annually
ce till 1800, when he went to Athens, Ga., and became
ollege there.[3]
fore this, the apparatus of this department had been
through Rev. Dr. Samuel Lockwood (Yale College,
, Conn. He gave, in 1787, £100 towards a fund of
ing philosophical instruments.[4] Dr. Richard Price
n in London, and, when the cost exceeded the sum
d that the college would accept this difference as his

to other departments; in May, 1781, Rev. Richard
eld, formerly a fellow of the corporation, gave 200
avails of which were for a professorship of Hebrew
l languages.[5] This land was leased for $1,566.67, and
nts to $3,700. In January, 1782, Dr. Daniel Lathrop,
College, 1733), left in his will £500 for the permanent

k, 1, 157. John D. Champlin. J. L. Kingsley, 27.
gsley, 27.
k, 1, 109 *sq.* Life of Josiah Meigs, by Wm. M. Meigs.
Yale University, 43.
gsley, 44.
Yale University, 43. Baldwin, Yale College.

fund, while Rev. Samuel Lockwood, D. D., at his death in 1791, left $1,122 for the library, in addition to his previous gifts.[1] For the library, previous to this, in 1777, Rev. Thomas Ruggles, of Guilford, had left £10,[2] and in 1787 Rev. John Erskine, of Edinburg, gave 120 volumes. In 1783, Jacob R. Riviera of Leicester, Mass., gave to the college a portrait of President Stiles's learned Hebrew correspondent, Rabbi Hagim Isaac Carigal.[3]

In 1790 Noah Webster, the lexicographer, gave an annual premium for the best composition, as "an encouragement to the study of the English language."[4]

PHI BETA KAPPA.

In President Stiles's time was brought to Yale the first of its existing societies. On December 5, 1776, just after the Declaration of Independence, some students of William and Mary College, in Virginia, meeting at the Apollo Hall of the old Raleigh tavern at Williamsburg, formed the first American college fraternity. From this beginning has sprung the society life of most of our colleges and the later organizations have patterned after their prototype far more closely than they now know or admit. The influence of the society has been the most potent one which went forth from the old college in tidewater Virginia. The founders of *Φ B K* had at first no design of extending the society beyond their college. After a year or so a plan was considered of extending it through the different colleges of the State, but there was no idea of founding branches in other States till a Yale man appeared, Mr. Elisha Parmele, who had studied for two years at Yale, and then went to Harvard, where he graduated in 1778. In the fall of the following year he went South for his health, which was failing. He stopped at Williamsburg, met the *Φ B K* men there, and became charmed with them and their society. A grand idea was evolved. It was, that, by establishing branches of this secret society in the different colleges of the country, mutual aid would be given in literature and the educated men in the various sections of the country, being knit together by ties of friendship, would draw more closely together the several States of the great nation which had just been founded. So the men at William and Mary, calling their chapter the Alpha of Virginia, gave to Mr. Parmele two charters, dated December 4, 1779, to establish "meetings" of their fraternity at "the two New England universities," Harvard and Yale. Returning home, he initiated four Yale men at his home in Goshen, Conn., on April 4, 1780, and on November 13, 1780, established at Yale the Alpha of Connecticut, by initiating twelve graduates and several seniors and juniors. A year later, on September 5, 1781, the Alpha of Massachusetts was estab-

[1] Dexter, Yale University, 43.
[2] Baldwin's Yale College.
[3] Yale Book, I, 185.
[4] Yale Book, I, 110.

d. The mother chapter perished in the Yorktown
; but its two daughters grew and flourished. The
d fortnightly, and in later years, when interest waned,
P. M., in winter. At them were delivered orations;
imes convivial meetings were held, at which "the
flowed. The initiation supper was held annually,
cost $150, and the faculty abolished it as being too

787, began the long series of *Φ B K* orations and poems
, which were formerly so prominent a feature of that
ere delivered by such men as Edward Everett. Many
and poems were printed, and from 1835 to 1871 there
he celebration. In 1808, the chapter issued its first
last, in 1852, contained the names of 1,700 members.
the society was manifested by outsiders at the first,
usly took, stole, and carried away the society's trunk
ts," December 19, 1786, and July 20, 1787.
ing to the anti-masonic excitement, the secrecy of the
ved. It took in at first one-half, and after a very few
the class, and gradually became a society of "high
ng always those who stood first in scholarship. As
e in, it lost importance and finally was dissolved in

evived, and now, taking the men who receive a philo-
ration at either junior or senior appointments, it sup-
college. Many a man has his exertions at his studies
rred on by a desire to get one of those coveted ap-
only about one-seventh of the class attain, so as to
e badge of scholarship, the *Φ B K* key. The society
college an excellent course of lectures during the

PRESIDENT STILES'S LAST DAYS.

sidency, in 1778, graduated Joel Barlow, poet and di-
Wolcott, Secretary of the United States Treasury and
ecticut, and Prof. Josiah Meigs. In the class of 1779
Brainerd, judge in Connecticut's supreme court, and
Congressman, and later professor of law in the col-
Roger Griswold was in the class of 1780. Chancellor
es Simeon Baldwin, of Connecticut, and Daniel Far-
, and Israel Smith, governor of the last-named State,
s of 1781. S. T. Hosmer, chief justice of Connecti-
bbins, United States Senator, graduated in 1782, and
amuel Austin, president of Vermont University, was

our Years at Yale, 224-234. Yale Book, I, 334.

in the graduating class with Judge David Daggett, United States Senator and head of the law school for many years; Rev. Abiel Holmes, D. D., the well-known historian of that day, author of the "American Annals" and biographer of President Stiles; Rev. Jedediah Morse, whose large two-volumed geography was the authority for many years in the United States, Rev. R. S. Storrs, and John Cotton Smith, the last governor of Connecticut under the old colonial charter. Ray Greene, United States Senator from Rhode Island, was an alumnus of 1784, and Samuel Huntington, governor of Ohio, with his successor, Return Jonathan Meigs, who was also Postmaster-General, left Yale a year later. In 1786 graduated Stanley Griswold, United States Senator from Ohio, and in 1787, Rev. Azel Backus, first president of Hamilton College; Christopher Ellery, United States Senator from Rhode Island; Gideon Granger, Postmaster-General, and Abraham Nott, judge of South Carolina's supreme court. In 1788 the class contained in its numbers James Lanman, United States Senator from Connecticut; Jeremiah Mason, who held the same position from New Hampshire, and John Wordsworth, attorney-general of New York. Seventeen hundred and eighty-nine was the year of graduation of John T. Peters, judge of the Connecticut supreme court, and John Stearns, M. D., a noted physician in New York. The celebrated divine, Rev. Edward Dorr Griffin, president of Williams College, and Samuel Jones, judge of the supreme court of New York, were graduated in 1790. Stephen Elliott, the botanist of South Carolina; Judge James Gould, a professor in the famous Litchfield Law School, and Gen. Peter B. Porter, Secretary of War, were in the class of 1791.

In 1792 graduated Eli Whitney, inventor of the cotton gin; William Marchant, judge of Rhode Island's supreme court; Roger M. Sherman, and Asa Chapman, who held the same honor in Connecticut; James C. Eaton, on whom the same honor was conferred in Bermuda, and William Botsford, also a judge of the supreme court of New Brunswick. Truly a judicial class. Rev. Jeremiah Atwater, first president of Middlebury College, and later president of Dickinson College, was graduated in 1793. John Elliott, United States Senator from Georgia, was a year later, in the class with Ezekiel Bacon, Comptroller of the United States Treasury, Thomas S. Williams, chief judge of the Connecticut supreme court, and Rev. Andrew Yates, professor of logic and ethics at Union College.

In 1795 the last class of the administration of President Stiles graduated Rev. Jeremiah Day, who was later to be himself president of the college, and Mathew B. Talmadge, United States district judge for New York. During the whole of this period one is struck with the number of eminent names among Yale's alumni. Proficiency in mathematics was the recognized test of scholarship.[1]

[1] Autobiography of Lyman Beecher, I, Harpers, 30, 700.

of President Stiles's term of office[1] skepticism and
prevalent, and many of the students were infected
of Voltaire, Rousseau, and D'Alembert. It has
at but one student was a Christian when President
is office, though that is doubtless an exaggeration.
students were said to have become worse than

after a short illness of four days, President Stiles
fever.[2] In the word's of Yale's latest historian—

natured powers, unremittingly, for seventeen years in a diffi-
e of the college, and had seen it advance steadily in solid
r reputation. Though genuinely simple in his private char-
ous about the details of official dignity and fostered, in the
, all the traditional orders and ceremonies of the place.[3]

be accorded an honored place among Yale's presi-
able aid he obtained from the State.

—PRESIDENT TIMOTHY DWIGHT (1795–1817).

itation as to President Stiles's successor. In June,
ght was chosen to the vacant place; he accepted in
ducted into office September 8, the day before com-
as born at Northampton, Mass., in May, 1752, and
in 1769. He was a grandson of Jonathan Edwards.
y he had written much of the "Conquest of Canaan,"
pic in eleven books. In 1771 he was made tutor,
for six years.[5] In 1772, at the taking of his master's
ed a dissertation on the "History, Eloquence, and
." While a tutor, he advanced the interest in the
and gave lectures on style and composition. He
d, at the resignation of President Daggett, he was
he students, that they signed a petition to the Cor-
have him, though not yet 26 years old, made Presi-
stopped from going before the Corporation only by
e.[6]

e a Chaplain in the Revolutionary army. In 1783,
tor at Greenfield Hill, Conn., where he remained
ident of Yale College. While there, he founded an
made not only preparatory to, but also parallel with
In the twelve years he remained there, he instructed
d, by receiving young ladies as students, made his

night prayer meeting was established at which, it is said,
often present.

rsity, 46.

L. Kingsley, 30.

school one of the very first in the country, where women were taught the higher branches.[1] He early became noted for great aptness to learn, for his power of application and of retaining facts, his intense love of knowledge and reasoning powers of the highest order. His election fitly came at the close of the eighteenth century and near the opening of the nineteenth, with whose progress and vigor he was so much in sympathy. It was a favorable moment for the college. President Stiles had made it harmonious with the State, and the country at large was rapidly recovering from the prostration consequent upon the Revolution and the subsequent unsettled times. Still there was much room for work in the college itself; the number of students had fallen off to little over 100; the buildings, except the new dormitory, required repairs; the course of instruction needed broadening; the income, even with the late additions, did not equal the expenses, and tuition was largely depended upon; irreligion was rampant; and the faculty consisted only of a President, Professor, and three Tutors.

President Dwight determined to follow President Stiles's plan of having permanent professors, and conceived the idea of making Yale a true national university. His own great reputation "gave an importance and character to the institution, which it had never enjoyed before."[2] He tried to expand the college, so that it might provide suitable training for the leaders of the young Nation, and succeeded well. He awakened the interest of his pupils, kept harmony in the faculty, and with the aid of his Professors made Yale a national institution, with students from nearly every State.[3] He paid much attention to the government of the College, and was extremely successful, relying much on his personal influence. It is stated that "no one ever understood young men better." Under him the system of pecuniary fines was abolished and the "Freshman Laws" done away with in 1804. Under him arose the *esprit de corps*, that "Yale spirit," which has so bound together the graduates to their Alma Mater and to each other and, in the athletic field, has so often snatched a victory from the very jaws of defeat. He was hopeful in disposition, an ardent lover of his country[4] and especially of New England, and an abhorrer of slavery. His conversational ability was remarkable, his manner always that of a gentleman, "his bearing and person of a noble mien, his form erect and full of dignity, his face beaming with intelligence and virtue, and his whole appearance impressive and imposing." He was "never at a loss what to say and seemed to say everything in the best manner."[5] "As a man, as a citizen, as a scholar, as a theologian, as a benefactor of his own and succeeding

[1] Am. Journal of Ed., v, 567. (Denison Olmsted.) College Book, 79.
[2] College Book, 79–80. Yale Book, I, 113.
[3] Yale Book, I, 118.
[4] J. L. Kingsley, 30.
[5] Yale Book, I, 123.

to be ranked among the foremost men of the country
[1] Professor Dexter calls him—

mpressive personality, most stimulating as an instructor and
a preacher. Dr. Dwight's direct influence upon the students
ful than that exerted by any of his predecessors. It was not the
s chosen President to commit to him also the College pastorate,
xponent of the theology of his grandfather, Jonathan Edwards,
armony with the prevailing views among the fellows, who had
ys occurred in filling the Professorship of Divinity and, mean-
d the vast influence for good, which thus opened before him,
and appreciated. Popular infidelity was met and vanquished;
College Church was revived and built up, and the result was
ciated temporarily till 1805,[2] he was then formally invited to
which he held with the Presidency till his death.[3]

Professor of English Literature and Oratory, and as
sophy.[4] Thus, as Sprague says, "he continued through
tial life to discharge the appropriate duties of four dis-
of which might have furnished ample employment for
He furthermore taught theology to a class of resident
whom were men as distinguished as Moses Stuart,
and N. W. Taylor.[6] His personal religious efforts
ts were many and successful; he "boldly and fear-
tudents to state their doubts to him and triumphantly
on infidel arguments."[7] He went to the students'
strengthen them in their religious life.[8] His sermons
ollege pulpit form his chief literary work, and have
ularity and influence. President Porter says of him

ns are remarkable for their freedom from scholastic terminology
use of an untheological diction. He welcomed and used the
hich the times could furnish. He had a poet's sensibilities
imposing eloquence. His theology was immensely popular.
Dwight, in combating the infidelity of his times, have been
. The equally if not more important services which he ren-
a more rational and Scriptural theology, have not so often been
theology which was taught and defended here was not taught
ulation, but as a living and energetic force, because it was
wer of God unto salvation.'

ence of President Dwight, the number of students
four years; being 150 in 1796 and 217 in 1800.[10] In

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ge Book, 83.
embers of that year, J. L. Kingsley, 30.
ter, Yale University, 48.
Book, i, 113.
ge Book, 79.
Book, i, 118 *sq.*
ge Book, 82.
Book, i, 120.
en years in college chapel (Noah Porter), 17.
ter, Yale University, 53.

WEST SIDE OF BRICK ROW—YALE UNIVERSITY.

1799 he was active in founding the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences.

THE YALE CAMPUS.

When President Dwight took office only the southern part of the college square was owned by the institution. Directly north of the buildings and within 100 feet of South Middle, stood the jail and court-house of the county. Aided by James Hillhouse, the able treasurer to the college, President Dwight entered upon negotiations which resulted in the purchase, in 1799 and 1800, of the "county lots," for $1,000 and the building of a new jail. At the same time other lots were bought, so that the college owned the entire front of the present campus, though some of the lots on the other side along High street were not purchased till some thirty years ago.[1]

BERKELEY HALL, CONNECTICUT LYCEUM, AND PRESIDENT'S HOUSE.

The growth in buildings during the early part of President Dwight's period was considerable. In 1797, South Middle was repaired and a fourth story added, making it like South, which uniformity was thought fine. In 1798, the Commons Hall was enlarged[2] and a year later the old President's house was sold and a new one was built of wood on the lately acquired land, near where Battell Chapel now is. This was occupied by Presidents Dwight and Day, but President Woolsey preferring to live in a house of his own, it was used for some years as a home for the new scientific school, and finally was torn down in 1860.[3]

On November 4, 1800, it was voted, with the proceeds of the State grant, to erect a new dormitory and Berkeley Hall was completed two years later. The name given in honor of the good bishop did not last long. It was soon called North College,[4] and, after another was erected to the north of it, it took its present name of North Middle. It was built exactly like the other dormitories, except that the rooms were originally intended for three persons instead of two. It stands now much as it did then. The rear entrances, however, of it and all the other buildings in the "Brick Row" were nailed up in 1871 for some inscrutable reason, known only to the faculty. About that time water and gas were put in the building, which has been heated with steam since 1875.[5]

At the same time that it was voted to build a dormitory, the decision was made to construct a building to be known as the Connecticut Lyceum, for recitations, library, and chemical laboratory, to be paid for also from the State grant of 1792.[4] The first half of the name has been

[1] Yale Book, I, 118, 201. (Hon. Henry White.)
[2] Yale Book, I, 119.
[3] Dexter, Yale University, 53. Yale Book, I, 463. (W. L. Kingsley.)
[4] J. L. Kingsley, 33.
[5] Yale Book, I, 468. (Rev. J. P. Peters.)

ng still is called the Lyceum. Four years earlier, on
5, the corporation had voted to buy land north of
l build a house like the chapel;[1] but, for pecuniary
ay a few years. It was now completed, with North
l stands south of it. It contained seven recitation
rs and six for lower classes; the chemical laboratory,
ns, and the library, then consisting of 7,000 volumes.[2]
vest end of the building was called the Theological
re President Dwight taught the seniors. In 1824
ved to the then new chapel and the room left vacant
torical Chamber.

76 the clock and bell were in Lyceum, where the
the bell still arouse students from morning slum-
hem to prayers and church.[3] Looking at these build-
viously built, President Dwight wrote, a few years
ngs are plain, but so arranged as to strike the mind

03, the corporation passed a vote, to which the cam-
ts beauty, "that trees should be set out next spring
college buildings, in such order as shall best con-
ce and beauty,"[4] and thus Yale has her elms, and
d son of St. Elihu loves the spot where the elm tree

TO YALE UNDER PRESIDENT DWIGHT.

ed, in 1796 the State of Connecticut extended the
many years nothing more came from the State; but
t distributed, "for the support of literature and
neys" received from the United States for outlay in
nd a part of this, amounting to $8,785.70, went to

er Wolcott, late Secretary of the United States
ame in 1807, the interest of which was to go to the
rs, in 1813, left 1,900 acres of land in Holland, Vt.,
Yale College, 1791, of Wheeling, W. Va., left $3,000
since been applied to the use of the library.[5] Yet
of. Kingsley could write in 1817 the "income from
l is less than $4,000."[6] Under President Dwight the
reased. In 1804 Prof. Silliman was sent to Europe

465. (W. L. Kingsley.)
vels, 1, 173.
462. (W. L. Kingsley.)
University, 38. J. L. Kingsley, 38.
le College.
he present situation of Yale College. (J. L. Kingsley.)

to buy apparatus, and did not return till June, 1806. The collection in mineralogy, at first small, was much increased in 1807 by the purchase of the varied collection of 1,500 specimens which belonged to Benjamin Perkins, of New York. (Yale College, 1796.) In 1810, through the efforts of President Dwight and Prof. Silliman about one-half of the cabinet of Col. George Gibbs, of Newport, R. I., was loaned to the college and put in a room in South Middle. In 1812, the rest of it was brought there, the collection numbering in all over 10,000 specimens.[1]

THREE NEW PROFESSORS—SILLIMAN, DAY, KINGSLEY.

Prof. Meigs, who had practiced law in Bermuda and had returned thence in 1794 because of the ostracism he had incurred from his defense of American vessels seized under the British orders of 1793, was a Republican, and as Dwight was an intense Federalist,[2] there was friction between them, which resulted in Meigs leaving to become President of the University of Georgia in 1801.[3] In 1812 he became Surveyor-General of the United States, and later Commissioner of the Land Office. He first made public agents under him keep meteorological tables. Previous to his leaving, in 1798, preparatory measures were taken for a Professorship of Chemistry and Natural History, and Ebenezer Grant Marsh (Yale College, 1795) was made Instructor in Hebrew on Salter's[4] gift. He lived only a few years, dying in 1804.

In 1801, however, President Dwight inaugurated the policy of making successful tutors permanent professors, and, instead of taking celebrated men, chose young graduates,[5] as these latter would render more valuable service to the institution with which the interests of their whole career would be from the first identified. One of the great secrets of his success was his rare sagacity in selecting men, and he chose three young men for the new professors, who remained connected with the college for half a century, and added greatly to its fame and worth. Jeremiah Day was only 28, Benjamin Silliman 23, and James L. Kingsley 27, when chosen to their offices.[6]

Jeremiah Day, later to be Dwight's successor, was the first chosen, in 1801, to be Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy; but, through ill health, did not begin his work till two years later. Born at Washington, Conn., August 3, 1773, he graduated at Yale in 1795, and was at once selected by President Dwight to be his successor in

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[1] J. L. Kingsley, 33, 34.
[2] J. L. Kingsley, 19.
[3] Dexter, Yale University, 48 *sq.*
[4] Yale Book, I, 115.
[5] Scribner, XI, 777 *sq.* (H. A. Beers). Yale Book, I, 114.
[6] Dexter Yale University, 48 *sq.* (New Englander, Oct., 1867, Pres. Woolsey's Ann. Address.)

Greenfield Hill. From 1796–98 he was a tutor at
and then at Yale till 1801.[1] On his assuming his
found a great need of text-books, which he at once
pply, writing a series of mathematical text-books,
ed well everywhere, and were long in use. The spe-
them is said to have been that "every process of
reasoning was worked out, patiently and distinctly,
ccessive steps."[2]

an, an alumnus of 1796, was next chosen in 1802 as
istry and Natural History. He was born at North
August 8, 1779, was Tutor at Yale for some years
studied law, and was just admitted to the bar, when
ssorship. After two years of study with Dr. Wood-
lphia, he gave his first lectures in 1804. He then
and after studying there fourteen months at Edin-
, returned and resumed his lectures. When he took
re almost no text-books; chemistry and mineralogy
ncy; "no one knew the names of the college minerals,
lly a retort" among the apparatus. He was a pioneer
ought his students to a new field, in which he urged
usiasm and personal magnetism. His manners were
periments brilliant; his oratorical powers such that
chosen to deliver public addresses for the College.
s national, "as an ardent lover of science." In 1818
American Journal of Science and Art," which he con-
years, leaving it finally in the hands of his son, Benja-
and his son-in-law, James D. Dana. It is still pub-
lished by Profs. J. D. and E. S. Dana. Prof. Silliman
ut a geological survey, which is believed to have
the United States; delivered frequent lectures in
ade many valuable contributions to science, and con-
truction at Yale till 1855. His honored life ended
ovember 24, 1864.[3] In his memory has been erected a
ueat the northeast corner of College quadrangle, and
ill looks down upon the scenes with which he was so

ngsley was the last of this trio of illustrious profes-
Mr. Marsh's successor, after his death, but with a
He was appointed in 1805 as Professor of Hebrew,
Ecclesiastical History. In 1817 the last of these
n from his chair, and in 1831 the Hebrew instruction
his duties, and, a separate professorship of Greek

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es, by G. P. Fisher. Yale Book, 1, 116. Blake's Biog. Dic.

being established, he thenceforth confined himself to teaching Latin till 1851, when he ceased instruction. He was born at Windham, Conn., August 28, 1778; graduated at Yale in 1799; was Tutor there from 1801 till he became Professor. He was also College librarian from 1805 to 1824.

Prof. Thacher said, in a commemorative discourse, he had "a love of thorough, substantial learning, united with a habit of great accuracy and exactness in its acquisition, a general appetite for the *nutrimentum spiritus*, which eminently fitted him for an academic life. He was destined to accomplish as great a work, so far as the literary advancement of the institution is concerned, as has been accomplished by any other person who has ever been connected with it." His influence was great to improve the methods of teaching and to advance the standards of scholarship. He was an advocate of thorough work, and influenced the College towards its determined and persistent hostility to shams. He was himself a model scholar, and was keen in appreciating all scholarly effort. His "best energies were given to the elegant literature of ancient times," and, combining "accuracy with a cultivated taste," he led his pupils through accuracy to elegance. In nearly every department of learning he was a master, and as President Woolsey said, Dwight "perceived in him those rare qualities which the College needed."[1] He issued editions of Latin classics, and in 1835 wrote an excellent history of Yale College. After being connected with Yale over fifty years, he died in New Haven August 31, 1852.

STUDENTS UNDER PRESIDENT DWIGHT.

With such instruction there could not fail to be good students. In 1796 graduated Rev. Henry Davis, President of Hamilton and Middlebury Colleges, and Prof. Silliman. Henry Baldwin, Judge of the United States Supreme Court; Rev. Lyman Beecher, the illustrious divine; Samuel A. Foot, United States Senator and Governor of Connecticut; Rev. Bethel Judd, President of St. John's College, Annapolis, Md., and Horatio Seymour, United States Senator from Vermont, were all alumni of 1797. William Bristol, United States District Judge for Connecticut; Jeremiah Mason and J. Woodworth, Judges in New York, were graduated a year later; and in 1799 Joel Doolittle, Judge of the Vermont Supreme Court; Dr. Eli Ives, Professor in the Medical School and President of the National Medical Society; Prof. Kingsley, and Rev. Moses Stuart, the renowned Professor of Sacred Literature at Andover, were in the graduating class. In 1801 Peter Hitchcock, Chief Judge of the Ohio Supreme Court; Thomas J. Oakley, who held like office in New York; Joseph Trumbull, Governor of Connecticut, and John Wales, United States Senator from Delaware, were gradu-

[1] Thacher's Commemorative Discourse, Oct., 1852. College Book, 81. Blake's Biog. Dic. Yale Book, I, 117.

er the class contained Isaac C. Bates, United States ssachusetts; Jessup N. Couch, Judge of the Ohio Rev. Jeremiah Evarts, of the American Board of r Foreign Missions; Rev. David Dudley Field, a still more famous sons; Rev. Daniel Haskell, Presi- University; Samuel Hubbard, Judge in the Massa- Court; William Maxwell, President of Hampden- Charles H. Pond, Governor of Connecticut; Rev. an, President of Eastern Tennessee College, and n, Governor of Connecticut and United States Sena- strious class.

803 we find the names of Samuel Church, Chief Judge upreme Court; Rev. Sereno E. Dwight, President of and Rev. Horace Holley, President of Transylvania n C. Calhoun in 1804 became an alumnus of Yale. n said that—

> his seat in Congress and was seen to rise up at once to the place ole ranks of veteran statesmen received the law at his lips, it se in Yale College, where he had been educated. It was just of the College—traditions seven years old—had anticipated. nself, impressed by the display of his talents and courage in room, had confidently predicted that Calhoun would be Presi- tates.[1]

l law at the Litchfield Law School. It is noteworthy e of States' rights received his early training from sts in the Union State of Connecticut. With him Rev. Christopher E. Gadsden, Bishop of South Caro- ien, Attorney-General of South Carolina; John P. of Mississippi's Supreme Court; Royal R. Hinman, the Rev. Bennett Tyler, President of Dartmouth College, nt of the Theological Seminary at East Windsor Hill. nphrey, President of Amherst College, and Rev. T. he American Deaf and Dumb Asylum, graduated in ater Clark Bissell, Governor of Connecticut and Pro- Law School, was an alumnus in the same class with on, President of Mississippi College; James Gadsden, o and framer of the treaty by which the "Gadsden ded to our national domain; Jabez W. Huntington, nator from Connecticut; and William Tully, M. D., Medical School at Castleton, Vt.

aduated Thaddeus Betts, United States Senator from liam Dubois, Lieutenant-Governor of South Carolina; , Judge of the New York Supreme Court; Rev. Na- , the famous theologian; Alexander H. Stevens, M. he New York College of Physicians and Surgeons

[1] Harper's, 29, 466 (J. Leavitt).

and of the American Medical Association; and Thomas S. Grimké, the eminent South Carolina lawyer.

In 1808 the class had such members as Charles I. Battell, Judge of the Indiana Supreme Court; James A. Hillhouse, a poet of no mean reputation in his day; Ralph I. Ingersoll, Minister to Russia; Jonathan Knight, M. D., Professor in the Medical School and President of the American Medical Association; Garrick Mallery, Judge of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court; and Silas W. Robbins, Judge of the Kentucky Supreme Court.

In 1809 graduated Josiah W. Gibbs, Professor in the Theological School, and Henry M. Waite, Chief Judge of the Connecticut Supreme Court. Edward Avery, Judge of the Ohio Supreme Court; William W. Ellsworth, Governor of Connecticut; Rev. Eleazar T. Fitch, College Pastor for many years; Rev. Chauncey A. Goodrich, Professor of Rhetoric and later of the Pastoral Charge; Frederic Grimké, Judge of the Ohio Supreme Court; Abraham B. Hasbrouck, President of Rutgers College; and Samuel F. B. Morse, the inventor of the telegraph, were all members of the class of 1810.

In 1811 were graduated M. L. Bennett, a Judge in Vermont; Roger S. Baldwin, Governor of Connecticut and United States Senator; Levin Monson and Sela B. Strong, Judges of the New York Supreme Court; D. H. Raymond, Judge in Louisiana; Samuel T. Phelps, United States Senator from Vermont; and Francis Granger, United States Postmaster-General.

Among the alumni of 1812 were E. W. Baldwin, President of Wabash College; John Davis, Governor of Massachusetts and United States Senator; Edward Delafield, M. D., president of the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons; and Isaac T. Preston, Judge of the Louisiana Supreme Court.

In 1813 the class contained George E. Badger, United States Senator from North Carolina and Secretary of the United States Navy; David B. Douglass, President of Kenyon College; Elias K. Kane, United States Senator from Illinois; Rev. Augustus B. Longstreet, President successively of Emory College (Georgia), Centenary College (Louisiana), Mississippi University, and South Carolina College; Rev. Elisha Mitchell, the eminent geologist; and Denison Olmsted, Professor of Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Astronomy. Both of the latter were professors at one time in the University of North Carolina and exercised great influence there.

In 1814 were graduated Samuel H. Dickson, M. D., the eminent professor of medicine in South Carolina, New York, and Philadelphia; John K. Kane, United States Judge for the District of Pennsylvania; John Law, Judge of the Indiana Supreme Court; William L. Storrs, Chief Judge of the Connecticut Supreme Court; and Rev. Nathaniel S. Wheaton, President of Trinity College. John M. Clayton, United States Senator from Delaware and Secretary of State, in the latter

ng the famous Clayton-Bulwer treaty; Thomas A. stice of the Kentucky Court of Appeals; James G. ; and Rev. Joseph D. Wickham, for many years pre- the oldest living graduate, were in the class of 1815. ed Eli Whitney Blake, inventor of the rock-crusher; owler, the author of several English grammars and ersity Edition of Webster's Dictionary; Rev. James of Jefferson College, Mississippi; Rev. Aratus Kent, t College; Rev. George E. Pierce, President of West- ge; Rev. Thomas M. Smith, President of Kenyon . Taylor, Judge of the New York Supreme Court; and r, who held like office in Mississippi. Four college class is a singular thing to record, and such a class ent Dwight's administration.

7 was the first one to have a reunion at its jubilee. by 1802, 1810, 1816, etc., until now every class has

had "quarterly exercises in oratory, exhibited by the n, and examinations in all classical studies in May At the latter time came Commencement, which then a more numerous and brilliant assembly than was ther anniversary in the State."[3]

Study in 1814 is given by President Dwight in his elous collection of facts gathered in vacation rambles l. It shows much improvement over the curriculum en. For admission, a knowledge was required of tions of Cicero; Clark's or Mair's Introduction to the Greek Testament; several branches of Mathematics; ectanea Graeca Minora. In Freshman Year the a Minora; Homer's Iliad, six books; Livy, first five Oratore; Adam's Roman Antiquities; Morse's Geog- bber's Mathematics, Vol. I. The Sophomores studied a Graeca Majora, Vol. I; Morse's Geography, Vol. II; ntics, Vol. II; Euclid's Elements; English Grammar; of History. The Juniors studied Tacitus (history); a Majora; Enfield's Natural Philosophy; Enfield's istry, and Vince's Fluxions. In Senior Year were ctures; Logic; Chemistry; Natural Philosophy and on the Human Understanding; Paley's Moral logy.[4]

vered his course of 160 sermons, forming his system each Sunday, thus completing the course each four

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le Book I. 381, sq. (G. E. Day).

rse's History of New England I. 300 (1809).

rse's Geography, I. 179.

right's Travels, I. 175.

years; "presided at the Seniors' disputes and taught metaphysics, morals, ethics, and religious philosophy."[1] Dwight also gives a description of Commencement worth quoting:

Such students as are approved by the examiners and have been guilty of no improper conduct in the interim, are then, by a vote of the Corporation, entitled to receive on the following day the degree of B. A. All who have received this degree and have not disgraced themselves by any improper conduct are, upon application, entitled at the end of three years to receive that of M. A. On the Friday preceding Commencement, the Senior class, who are regularly permitted to return home after the examination, reassemble at the College. The following Sunday a sermon is addressed to them by the Professor of Divinity. The Commencement is held on the succeeding Wednesday in the church belonging to the First Congregation in this city. A very numerous and brilliant assembly is always collected upon this occasion, consisting of gentlemen and ladies of the first respectability in this and other States of the Union. On the morning of the Commencement day, at 9 o'clock, a procession is formed at the chapel door by the students, candidates for the master's degree, the faculty, Corporation, and a numerous train of clergy and other gentlemen, under conduct of the sheriff of the county, and proceeds circuitously to the church. The decorum preserved on this occasion is entirely honorable to those who assemble, and strongly indicative of a refined state of society. Such candidates for the first degree, as have been previously selected by the faculty for this purpose, then pronounce a series of orations, disputes, colloquies, etc., written by themselves.[2]

In 1798 the present practice of choosing salutatorians and valedictorians was adopted.

The earliest catalogue of graduates was printed in 1714 with the graduating theses of that year; in 1718, the same was done. In 1724 appeared the first of the triennial catalogues of graduates, which series has continued to the present. These were on single folio sheets till 1781: from that onward they have been octavo pamphlets.[3]

As to catalogues of students, the old practice in college was that every Freshman class had a catalogue of their names printed and this served them for their college life. In the fall of the year 1796, on the recommendation of President Dwight, a catalogue of all the classes was printed on an open sheet; similar catalogues were printed at the beginning of every collegiate year till 1813, when the pamphlet form was adopted.[4]

The number of students increased steadily, throughout Dr. Dwight's term of office, amounting in 1817 to 283, exclusive of the medical students.

DEVELOPMENT TOWARDS A UNIVERSITY—THE MEDICAL SCHOOL.

President Dwight, as has been said, hoped to develop the College to a University and naturally the thought of a Theological Department came first, as from very early times there had been at Yale a class of

[1] Yale Book, II, (Woolsey).

Dwight's Travels, I, 178.

[2] Dexter, Yale University, 98. In English first in 1792, previously in Latin.

MSS. note of J. L. Kingsley, in his Bound Yale Catalogues, now in J. H. U. Library.

s as theological students. This department, however, ed to establish in his lifetime; but he induced one of some money for that purpose, which soon became the lowment of the Theological School.[1]

t of law next engaged his attention, and in 1801 the to establish a Professorship of Law, to which Hon. as appointed and lectured occasionally till 1810; when, n, the professorship was suffered to lapse for some is professorship was not designed to qualify students o have lectures read "on the leading principles of the nations; on the general principles of civil government, epublican representative government; on the Consti- ed States and of the State of Connecticut;" and also bligations and duties resulting from the social rela- hose relations which arise from our own National and ts." If a professional school of law were begun, it be a private concern of the professor or was to be

nt Dwight's administration, was begun the first of the ls, the "Yale Medical School," the sixth in age in the erstand its founding, it is necessary briefly to review licine in Connecticut. Dr. Jared Elliot, of Killing- st of the old clergymen, who practiced medicine in d so brought healing to both soul and body. After d medicine as they desired, and those were best fitted with some older physicians, while quackery abounded. physicians of Norwich and vicinity petitioned the for authority to meet quarterly to choose a committee physicians to examine candidates for doctors, and t certificates from such a committee be not allowed law. This failed of a favorable reply and nothing some time.

he New Haven County Medical Society was formed, Assembly was petitioned to grant a charter for a State Considerable agitation occurred over this question, nt Yale partook, and the Seniors discussed, whether grant such a charter, and whether the institution of is useful? The New Haven Medical Society gave the , which, previous to this, old practitioners had been ve to their pupils. Finally, in May, 1792, the Con- Society was incorporated. From that time till 1813, dical School was founded, the Medical Society gave D. on examination. Yale ceased giving M. D. as e at the incorporation of the State Medical Society.

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ok, 82. [1] J. L. Kingsley, 31.

Early in this century Dr. Dwight proposed to found a Medical School, but the State Society met the idea with coldness.

In September, 1806, Rev. Dr. Nathan Strong, in the Corporation meeting, offered a resolution "for the appointment of a committee to inquire into the expediency of establishing a medical professorship in this College, and, if they find it expedient and practicable, to devise the means of such an establishment and also a system of regulations, which they judge adapted to the subject, and to report to the Corporation at its next regular meeting." Nothing, however, was done for some time, for the medical men had prejudices, and harmonious action and coöperation with the State Society was desired. The doctors feared that worthy young men would be excluded because unable to pay the fees. Prof. Silliman proposed that, to remove this objection, one from each county should be admitted free if recommended by the Medical Society and selected for intelligence, worth, and poverty. This proposal was accepted and availed of for some time, but has now fallen into disuse. In this way, by a committee from the Medical Society meeting one from the Faculty, all objections were removed and in May, 1810, a committee was appointed to lay the report of the joint committee before the General Assembly, which, in October, passed an act founding the Yale Medical School, under joint control of the Corporation and the Medical Society. In 1811 a committee of the Corporation was appointed to act with the Medical Convention in carrying into execution the Medical Institute of Yale College, and in September, 1812, the department was organized. The Faculty was, Æneas Munson, Professor of Materia Medica and Botany; Nathan Smith, Professor of the Theory and Practice of Surgery and Obstetrics; Eli Ives, Professor of the Theory and Practice of Physics; Jonathan Knight, Professor of Anatomy and Physiology; Benjamin Silliman, Professor of Chemistry, Pharmacy, Mineralogy, and Geology.[1] Candidates for license, or for an M. D., must have good moral character and an English education. Furthermore, an acquaintance with natural philosophy and a competent knowlege of Latin, previous to entrance, was required. If a College graduate, the student was to study three years with a physician or surgeon; if not a graduate, four years,[2] and, in any case, to attend one full course of lectures for a license and two for an M. D., and be 21 years old at graduation. In October, 1813, instruction began with 31 students in the building, now South Sheffield Hall. This was first built by James Hillhouse as a hotel and was leased by the school and then bought for it with $20,000, a part of the bonus of the Phœnix Bank of Hartford, granted the Medical School by the State in 1814. Jared P. Kirtland, afterwards President of the Ohio Medical Society, is said to have been the first student. The faculty of the School were nominated by a joint committee from the Corporation and the Connecticut Medical Society, and

[1] Yale Book, II, pp. 60–66 (B. Silliman, Jr.). [2] Dwight's Travels, I, 177.

the Corporation.[1] There was an examining board
nd of members of the Medical Society. Dr. Munson
any active part, but Dr. Ives remained connected
forty-seven years and Dr. Knight for fifty-one years,
, though no longer actively engaged in instruction.
only one graduated at a Medical School, and in 1829
Faculty to die. He founded the Medical School in
and for some years was the only Professor there,
ctice at the same time. It has been said "the as-
done more for the improvement of physic and sur-
nd than any other man will by no one be deemed
the first class of 3 graduated and the number of
st year, increased to 57 in the next and 66 in the
of a library and an anatomical museum were made
ht for a botanical garden.[2] At first they tried to
y system, with prayers and commons, but this was

DEATH OF PRESIDENT DWIGHT.

t Dwight was taken sick. He partially recovered,
ming worse again, died January 11, 1817, aged 65.
e most conspicuous of men in modern times for the
lness, the variety and symmetry of his parts."[3]
is funeral. "His administration had been a period
osperity, and under him the College, by the increas-
ents from the Southern and Southwestern States,
ire its distinctive character as a *national institution*,
he *University principle* was thenceforth to be recog-

.—PRESIDENT JEREMIAH DAY (1817–1846).

ongest Presidency in the history of the College, for
l office for 29 years. He was Dr. Dwight's choice
d was heartily confided in by his colleagues and
there seemed danger of a decline of prestige for the
institution if so eminent a man as Dr. Dwight of the
ions scholar who had long been in extremely deli-
s only known to the public by a series of mathemati-
For these reasons Day was reluctant to take the
g. It was, the Corporation in February, 1817,
Davis, D. D., President of Middlebury College, Ver-

[1] Rec. [illegible], [illegible]; Geo. E. Silliman, jr. v.
[2] Dwight's Travels, i. 177; J. L. Kingsley, p. 82.
[3] Rec. [illegible]
[illegible] University, p. 53.

mont, to the vacancy. He declined, however, and Day's objections being overcome, he was chosen President in April, 1817, and inaugurated July 23, the same year. He had studied theology and been licensed to preach before becoming a Professor, but had never been ordained, and was, therefore, ordained by the clerical part of the corporation on the day of his inauguration.[1] The wisdom of the choice was soon seen, and the period of his administration was a brilliant one. "Never before had students had such interest in study, such *esprit de corps*, such pride in the ability and reputation of their teachers, such affection for their Alma Mater." Prof. Kingsley said:

> Yale College is thought to have been particularly fortunate in its Presidents, and it may be said with truth that it has at no time flourished more than under the administration of President Day.[2]

Under him the growth of the College was "sound and symmetrical," and, though students did not increase in numbers as formerly, the cause was not any deficiency in Yale, but the raising of the standard of admission there and the founding of Amherst, Trinity, Wesleyan, etc., which drew off many who would otherwise have gone to Yale. Prof. Dexter says of President Day:

> The gravity and calmness which were his striking external characteristics, were in perfect keeping with the whole force of his influence in College affairs. By a well-balanced judgment, cautiousness about changes, regularity and steadiness in the development of matured plans and other traits similar to these, he exercised a great, though unobtrusive, power, and left a memory for universal veneration.

He felt the burden of his position and once or twice desired to resign, but was dissuaded.[3] He only consented to take the office provided he might be relieved of some of the burdens. Consequently the duties President Dwight performed were separated, and new professors were appointed to care for some of them. Government by faculty arose under Day. Previously the government of the College was wholly in the President's hands; but President Day consulted the professors and "desired to have all questions decided in faculty meeting, as greater harmony and feeling of responsibility would thus be secured." From that time to this no professor has been appointed without the faculty's consent, nor has any important action been taken even by the Corporation without recommendation from, or assent of the Faculty.[4] In other respects he followed the old course, only with more regularity and system, and requiring more preparation of the students than ever before. He was kind and lenient, yet prompt and decided in enforcing good order, and under him the Faculty obtained that reputation for unyielding, sometimes even arbitrary inflexibility, which it has since maintained.

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[1] J. L. Kingsley, p. 35; Dexter, Yale University, p. 55.
[2] College Book, p. 88.
[3] Dexter, Yale University, p. 55.
[4] Yale Book, i. 127.

ive Commission was appointed to see how much had
nd they computed that all the gifts from the State
ut $250 a year, and amounted in all to $73,402.60.
gave the college $7,000 from the bonus paid by a
secure a charter.[1] Though now the gifts of the State
nt, the stream of private munificence began to flow
eriod many gifts were made to the new professional
noticed later; while for the College proper the great
000 endowment fund raised in 1831 and 1832 by
treasurer.[2] By his unwearying efforts in those two
5,938 from the alumni; of this, $82,950 was specif-
Academical Department. This came chiefly from
means, more than three-fourths of the subscriptions
100 or less. Mr. Warner (Yale College, 1826) suc-
, systematically, the interest of the alumni for the
ollege's history; with this fund a Professorship of
athematics were established; a teacher of Elocution
ser wants were supplied.[3] The faculty gave liberally
ns to the fund, though their salaries were then only
came at a time of great need to the College, whose
d funds was only $2,300.[5] The receipts from tuition
e expenditures $15,474; and for some years the Col-
ing in debt about $400 yearly. As far back as 1822
aling to the legislature for aid, and stating that it
than any other American college, announced that
unted to $50,000, and it had still a debt of $11,000
(North College).[6] The permanent productive funds
bout $20,000, and there is no exaggeration in saying
f the College is a story of unceasing struggle with
h bankruptcy, of self-denying effort by its officers,
mall and patient economies on the part of its finan-

s were about $1,000 from Roswell Colt, of Baltimore;
nce been increased to $25,000, from D. C. De Forest,[8]
Buenos Ayres, in 1825, and land in Lysle, Chenango
th $1,000, from W. W. Woolsey, of New York, in
iel Boardman, of New York, gave Yale 1,010 acres
Vt. The Benevolent Society of Yale College, dis-
its library to the College and $367.36 for beneficiary

[1] Yale Book, 1, 112.
[2] Dana, Yale's Needs. (Nation, 12, 379.)
Baldwin.
sity, p. 43.
Baldwin, Yale College. Fifteen years in Yale Chapel, 13.
American Journal of Education, x, 693.
J. C. Kingsley.

aid,[1] for which purpose Solomon Langdon, of Farmington, left $4,000 in 1835. An Alumni Society was incorporated at Commencement, 1827, and before 1831 had subscribed for the College $3,814.50.[2] At graduation the class of 1831 gave $1,000. In 1834 Dr. Alfred E. Perkins, of Norwich, left by will $10,000, the interest of which was to be used for purchase of books for the library. This was the largest gift from an individual since the founding of the College and the only one, at the time, exceeding that of Governor Yale.[3] It is still the largest single gift to the library fund. In 1824 Sheldon Clark gave $5,000 for a Professorship of Moral Philosophy and Metaphysics, but the money was not to be used till it had been at compound interest for twenty-four years. This gift is worthy of note from the circumstances attending it. The giver was a farmer, born at Oxford, Conn., January 31, 1785, and died April 10, 1840. At the age of 26, by the death of his grandfather, on whom he was dependent and by whose penuriousness he had been prevented from obtaining a collegiate education, he was left heir to a moderate estate, and came to New Haven to gain advantage from intercourse with the College professors and from attendance on their lectures. "He then went back to his farm and lived very economically, for the express purpose of laying up money that should cause his name to be remembered as a promoter of learning. He read and thought constantly and was excessively fond of argumentation." Some of his productions were printed, and at home he was respected and several times elected to the State legislature. In 1824 his first gift was followed by one of $1,000, to be also put at compound interest for twenty-four years, and then the income to be given to the best scholar in the senior class for two years after graduation.[4] In 1831 he gave $1,200 for an acromatic telescope with a 5-inch aperture and a focal length of 10 feet, made by Dollond in London. To receive this, the tower of the Athenæum was fitted up as an observatory and is used for that purpose to this day.[5] At Mr. Clark's death he left $7,000 and 400 acres of land, estimated as worth as much more, to the general fund.[6]

In 1849 the scholarship was first offered, and was taken by Timothy Dwight, since President of the College. It has been very beneficial in promoting scholarship, and among the Clark scholars have been Theodore Winthrop, L. R. Packard, J. W. Gibbs, and Eugene Schuyler. During President Day's administration Israel Munson, of Boston, Mass., gave $15,000 for a Professorship of Natural Philosophy, and Prof. Salisbury and others gave $10,000 for a Professorship of Natural History.[6] In 1843 Prof. J. H. Townsend (Yale College, 1822), of the Law School,

[1] Baldwin, Yale College; Dexter, Yale University, 43.
[2] Yale Book, I, 193.
[3] J. L. Kingsley, 39.
[4] Four Years at Yale, 595; Yale Literary Magazine, 25, 408.
[5] Yale Book, I, 142.
[6] Yale Book, I, 194 (H. C. Kingsley).

come of which was to be annually given in five pre-
iors for the best English composition.[1] Thus were
send Premiums, esteemed one of the greatest honors
rse. Besides Dr. Perkins's munificent gift for the
ey and Daniel Wadsworth, of Hartford, each gave
rmer for books in practical mechanics, the latter for
istory and chemistry. In 1830 Mr. John T. Norton,
gave $5,000 to the library,[2] and Rev. John Elliott,
ilford (now Madison), left it at his death, in 1824, a
nounts to $1,400.[3]

as much increased in Day's time. Among other gifts
n electrical machine from Caleb Wright in 1834. In
. Silliman's efforts, money was raised for the purchase
bs collection of minerals, which the College had had
some years. It cost $20,000, of which the alumni of
ntributed $700, the alumni of New Haven and the
ge $10,000, the citizens of New York $3,000, and an
al $500. The College thus obtained over 24,000 valu-

ABINET, TRUMBULL GALLERY, DIVINITY COLLEGE,
HAPEL, NORTH COLLEGE, LIBRARY.

binet building was built for a Commons Hall, with a
ment and the upper floor for the mineralogical cabi-
lding took its name. When Commons were given up,
rooms were given to the department of natural phi-
on rooms. The building stood west of the brick row,
ed in 1830. When the Peabody Museum was built
moved there, in 1876, the College Reading Room was
er floor of the Cabinet, where it remained until re-
wing of the Library Building when the Cabinet was
lower [illegible] tained two large recitation rooms.
Hall was fitted as for a laboratory in 1820, and 30 feet
n the south for a lecture room. The first chemical
brought from London by Ebenezer Fitch (tutor,
laboratory had been in the basement of the Lyceum
Silliman's lectures were very popular, and many
em. In that old laboratory he made and used his
ric battery, which cost $7,000 and was made of 900
copper.

ormitory was voted and North College was accord-
l. It never bore any other name than the one indi-

[illegible] Yale Book, I, 172 (W. L. Kingsley).
[illegible] College Book, 81.
Yale Book, I, 153.

NORTH COLLEGE—YALE UNIVERSITY.

cating its geographical position, and for some years was considered the finest dormitory, and was therefore the resort of Seniors.[1] On November 17, 1824, the last of the present buildings in the brick row was dedicated. It is the Old Chapel, and cost $12,000, about one-fourth of which came from friends of the College. It was built to supply more room than the former chapel in the Atheneum had furnished. The attic was fitted up for the library, the third floor was used as a dormitory, as it is still, and was occupied by the Divinity students till a separate building was erected for them. The gallery had square pews along the wall, with broad passageways between them and the front, in which one or two rows of movable seats were put for casual visitors and professional, or graduate, students. The pulpit was high and old-fashioned; it was lowered in 1847 and again in 1872, when the front of the galleries was also lowered. In 1831 the seats in the gallery were rearranged. In 1851 an organ was purchased and the instrumental accompaniments to singing, formerly used, were given up.[2] In this building morning prayers were held at the extremely early hours of 5 a. m. in summer, and from 6 to 6:30 in winter. After prayers, came the morning recitation, before breakfast, for all but Seniors, and after 1846 for them also. Evening prayers were held from 5 to 6 p. m., according to the season, the President conducting morning prayers, a professor or tutor, those at night. On Sunday there were two services till 1872, when the afternoon one was given up. In 1858–'59, morning prayers and recitations before breakfast were given up, a change for the students' health, one would imagine, and evening prayers likewise went into disuse.[3] This chapel, "the scene of the elaborate and refined eloquence of Fitch, the weighty arguments and the rousing appeals of Taylor, the calm and deliberate wisdom of Day, the passionate appeals of Goodrich, and the tender and meditative pathos of Woolsey,"[4] was rearranged after the new Battell Chapel was built, so as to supply seven recitation rooms.

In 1831 the Trumbull Gallery[5] was built, at a cost of $4,000, to contain the Yale Art Gallery, consisting at the time only of a few paintings, mostly those painted by John Trumbull. The famous artist being left a widower, finding his skill failing him and the demand for his work diminishing, became morbidly opposed to selling anything to individuals "and offered all the remainder of his collection to Yale for an annuity of $1,500. The offer was accepted and the College obtained 7 large pictures and 250 portraits," many of them first copies from large works and of great value,[6] historically as well as artistically. When the paintings were

[1] Yale Book, I, 474 (Rev. W. Calkins).
[2] Fifteen Years in Chapel of Yale College (N. Porter), 11–14.
[3] Fifteen Years in Chapel, 15.
[4] Fifteen Years in Chapel, 57.
[5] The State made an appropriation for it (Yale Book, II. 149, E. E. Salisbury).
[6] Conn. Post, March 9, 1878.

le Art School the building was remodeled in 1868 for Treasurer's office, for which purpose it is still used.[1] ing like the other dormitories in the brick row was logical School, and called Divinity College. It stood the North College and was taken down in 1870, when as built.

came cramped in its quarters in the Chapel, as years eparate building for it was needed. In 1843 such a gun and finished in 1846. It cost $34,000, of which d $18,000; of this amount Prof. Salisbury gave $6,000, y $3,000, Cortland Van Rensselaer $600, and Presi- Goodrich, Mr. Henry, D. A. Ward, and Hon. Thos. each.

s of Portland sandstone, 151 feet long, and stands p the Campus on the west side. It is a beautiful build- it is too dark within to answer its purpose well. The d suffered much in the Revolution, numbering only 1791 against 4,000 in 1766, speedily recovered. In 4,700 volumes; in 1823, 6,620; in 1835, 10,000; and in this time it was best in theology and sciences, weak neral literature.[2]

senior tutor was librarian. Then Prof. Kingsley per- of the office till 1824, when Prof. Gibbs succeeded him.[3] building, a librarian, to devote his entire time to the ted. E. C. Herrick, the first one, held office till 1858.[4] ibraries were kept in the same building; that of the which had been begun by Timothy Dwight, Nathan Hillhouse in 1769, occupied the South wing and added 1825 to 1850. Brothers in Unity had their library in and when the libraries were united under the College 1872, after the death of the societies, the books of o moved there. Calliope had a library of 6,000 vol- in 1854, when most of them were sold.[5]

CHANGES IN THE FACULTY.

. Gilman, when a Professor at Yale, wrote:

f a college should rest in the hands of permanent resident pro- ch has made Yale so great a success. The Corporation have never anything important. Offers of lucrative and honorable posi- ly take professors away, for they find no obstacles here.[6]

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versity, 100.

(A. Van Name.)

versity, 59.

(A. Van Name.) In 1890 the Societies' libraries were placed the old library building.

55, (1871).

TREASURY BUILDING, DURFEE COLLEGE—YALE UNIVERSITY.

OLD LIBRARY—YALE UNIVERSITY.

At this time fourteen tutors heard recitations and the professors lectured chiefly.

The Professors were enterprising and able, scholars standing foremost in their several departments, and were united to each other by a chivalrous courtesy, which was worthy of the elder times, and which, with their single-hearted devotion to the College, gave them a high place in the confidence of the community. They were all men of decided religious convictions, though singularly unlike in the expression of them.[1]

At President Day's accession the old Professorship of Divinity was filled by the election of Rev. Eleazar T. Fitch (Yale College, 1810). He filled the office till 1852, and, as Professor Emeritus, from 1863 to 1871. In the pulpit he was "distinguished for the acuteness and subtilty of his theological discourses and the persuasive eloquence of his popular sermons. No one who ever heard the pathetic tones of his entreaties or the elaborate exhaustiveness of his subtile arguments could forget the man, and no one who knew him as a man would desire to lose him from his memory."[2] At the same time as Prof. Fitch, Alexander M. Fisher was chosen Professor of Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Astronomy, which post President Day formerly held. He was of great promise and went to study in Europe, but was lost in the wreck of the packet *Albion*, near Kinsale, Ireland, April 2, 1822. In September of that year Rev. Matthew R. Dutton (Yale College, 1808), pastor at Stratford, was chosen as successor and held the place till his death, July 17, 1825. Then Denison Olmsted (Yale College, 1813) was called to the professorship and accepted it, leaving the University of North Carolina, where he had been Professor several years and where his influence still lingers. In 1836 the chair was divided. Mathematics were taken from it and given to Anthony D. Stanley (Yale College, 1830), who held the chair till his death in 1853. Prof. Olmsted continued to give instruction in Natural Philosophy and Astronomy till his own death in 1859. His text-books on his favorite sciences had great popularity and are still in use.[3]

Another appointment, made in 1817, was that of Rev. Chauncey A. Goodrich as Professor of Rhetoric and English Literature, he being the first to hold that chair, instruction in those branches being previously given by President Dwight. Of him it is said that he "rarely, if ever, preached, but was eminently effective in familiar religious lectures and in private conversation with individuals. He was a master of an impassioned eloquence, which, though it might seem occasionally to rise above the level of ordinary religious emotion, was very impressive to many minds. He was the adviser of many in time of spiritual need, and by his prompt and ready sympathy and his generous liberality proved himself a faithful servant of his Master.[4] He took great interest in the new theological school, and was transferred to it in 1839 as Professor of the Pastoral Charge, holding it till his death in

[1] Fifteen Years in Chapel, 14.
[2] Fifteen Years in Yale Chapel.
[3] Yale Book, i, 131.
[4] Fifteen Years in Chapel, 21.

g much of the endowment for the chair. Removed
struction of the undergraduates, "he continued to
use the religious friend of the students in the Col-
official pastoral work and impressive personal influ-
levelop the active Christian life of the whole institu-
. Larned (Yale College, 1826) succeeded him, as Pro-
and served in that capacity till his death in 1862.
re D. Woolsey, who had graduated in 1820, been a
lied theology at Princeton, and traveled from 1827
was appointed Professor of Greek which chair he
became President of the college, till 1851. In 1842,
r (Yale College, 1835) was made Assistant Professor
studied in Europe for two years, during part of which
tor in English to the late German Emperor, Frederic
the professorship he advocated postgraduate study,
w methods of conducting recitations. Formerly only
n of the author was required; but from the multipli-
ranslations and the readiness of the students to use
sing much of the benefit of the study.[2] To remedy
the practice of asking grammatical questions.[3] In
l, "after forty-seven years of self-sacrificing services,
orable of which lay outside the class room, in his
he students, his interest in the graduates, and his
all measures for the progress of the college."[4] In
alisbury was chosen Professor of Arabic and Sans-
n 1856.

fessors and this President much advance in instruc-
lementary subjects were discarded, such as English
raphy, in 1826, and arithmetic in 1830, while modern
litical economy were introduced. "The scope and
trance examinations were increased." Through the
e Bushnell (then a tutor) and President Woolsey,
plan was abandoned of "assigning a division of a
n heard all recitations," and there was substituted
lan, of appointing a tutor to teach the same subject
isions successively.[2]

estions of "dead languages" and electives came up
. Noyes Darling, of the Corporation, moved:

appointed to inquire into the expediency of so altering the
uction in this college, as to leave out of said course the study
substituting other studies therefor, and either requiring a com-
said language as a condition of admittance into the college or
in the same terms in case they choose to study them after admittance,
mittee be requested to report at the next annual meeting of this

rsity, 57.

Yale Book, 1, 143.

[4] Dexter, Yale University, 83.

The committee so reported, and transmitted also two elaborate papers, one written by President Day, containing "A summary view of education in the College," the other by Prof. Kingsley, "An inquiry into the expediency of insisting on the study of the ancient languages."[1] These papers convinced the Corporation and the curriculum was left as before. Some of President Day's phrases are worth quoting. He said a college course "is to lay the foundation of a superior education. It is not to give a partial education consisting of a few branches only, nor, on the other hand, to give a superficial education, containing a little of almost everything, nor to finish the details of either a professional or practical education; but to commence a thorough course and to carry it as far as the time of the student's residence will allow."[2]

WHO THE STUDENTS WERE.

"And there were giants in those days." The reputation of the College had spread far and wide and the choicest young men from all parts of the country came to Yale. How then could the old Alma Mater fail to have distinguished sons? In 1817 graduated Nathan R. Smith, M. D., for long years a distinguished professor in the University of Maryland; Rufus P. Spalding, Judge of the Ohio Supreme Court; Charles J. McCurdy, Minister to Austria; Joel Jones, President of Girard College; Rev. William H. De Lancey, President of the University of Pennsylvania and Bishop of Western New York; and Rev. Lyman Coleman, the veteran professor at Lafayette College. Francis Bugbee, Judge of the Supreme Court of Alabama; Francis H. Cone, Frederic Whittlesey, and Henry Dutton, who held like offices in Georgia, New York, and Connecticut, respectively, graduated in 1818, with Rev. Hector Humphreys, President of St. Johns College, Maryland, and Lewis Wild, Principal of the American Deaf and Dumb Asylum. In 1819 the class contained Samuel D. Hubbard, Postmaster-General, a post for which Yale's sons have had a fondness; W. W. Turner, Principal of the American Deaf and Dumb Asylum; and John H. Lathrop, President of the Universities of Missouri and Indiana and Chancellor of the University of Wisconsin. Rev. Leonard Bacon, "the Congregational Bishop of Connecticut:" President T. D. Woolsey; Mason Brown, Judge of the Supreme Court of Kentucky; and Alexander C. Twining, the inventor of the process of making artificial ice, were alumni of 1820.

In 1821 was graduated Rev. Thomas W. Coit, President of Transylvania University, as were in 1822 the venerable Edward Beecher, formerly President of Illinois College, now the oldest living graduate, and William Rockwell, Judge of the New York Superior Court. In 1824, Ashbel Smith, M. D., the Texan Ambassador to Great Britain and France, became an alumnus, as did Willis Hall, Attorney-General, and

[1] Am. Colls. and Am. Pub., 12 (N. Porter). [2] College Book, 87.

th, Secretary of State for New York; and Origen S. dge of the Connecticut Supreme Court. A year later ng its numbers William B. Fleming, Judge of the Court; Seabury Ford, Governor of Ohio; Rev. Simeon f Hamilton College; and Thomas Slidell, Chief Judge upreme Court. In 1826 were graduated Prof. Larned; , Chief Judge of the Supreme Court of Minnesota Rockwell, United States Senator from Massachusetts; M. Sturtevant, President of Illinois College. Rev. President of the Union Theological Seminary; Rev. Rev. Horace Bushnell,[1] Rev. Cortlandt Van Rens- oted divines; Nathaniel P. Willis, one of America's en; William H. Welch, Chief Judge of the Supreme ta Territory; Henry P. Edwards, Henry Hogeboom, o all sat on New York's Supreme Bench; Rev. Henry t of the University of California; and William W. t of the University of Missouri, were graduates in the 1827. The late Rev. F. A. P. Barnard, President of Mississippi and of Columbia College, graduated in W. Hoppin, Governor of Rhode Island, and William the United States Supreme Court.

ancis Gillette, United States Senator from Connecti- Principal of the Virginia Institution for Deaf and s H. Shorter, Chief Judge of the Supreme Court of nry Barnard, the veteran educator, Chancellor of the onsin, and President of St. John's College, Maryland; d, Judge of the Maryland Supreme Court; the late is; Prof. A. D. Stanley; Lewis B. Woodruff, United l John C. Smith, Minister to Bolivia, all were gradu- 1831 James H. Adams, Governor of South Carolina, ting class, as were Rev. Thomas M. Clark, Bishop of v. William I. Kip, Bishop of California; Rev. Peter to China; Trusten Polk, Governor of Missouri and ator; Alpheus S. Williams, Minister to San Salvador; h Porter, "*clarum et venerabile nomen.*"

n, United States Senator, was in the class of 1832, . Clay, Minister to Russia; Rev. Henry L. Hitchcock, tern Reserve College; Prof. E. E. Salisbury, and renowned physician. Prof. James D. Dana gradu- d Prof. George E. Day and Alphonso Taft, United of War and Attorney-General, Minister to Austria 834 graduated Henry G. Ellsworth, Minister to Swe-

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ture of [illegible] college, "black-haired, earnest-eyed, sturdy, leto, a [illegible], a good fellow, and popular in spite of exemplary." (Life of N. P. Willis, Chap. II.)

den; John W. Houston, Judge of the Delaware Supreme Court; William T. Minor, Governor of Connecticut; and William N. H. Smith, Chief Judge of the North Carolina Supreme Court. Rev. Samuel W. Fisher, another President of Hamilton College, was an alumnus of 1835, a classmate of Rev. George W. McPhail, President of Lafayette and Davidson Colleges; Hugh W. Sheffey, Judge of the Virginia Supreme Court; Prof. T. A. Thacher; and Alexander S. Johnston, Judge of the United States Supreme Court. In 1836 were graduated Edward P. Cowles, a judge of the court of last resort in New York, and Rev. Richard H. Wilmer, Bishop of Alabama.

The famous class of 1837 contained Chief Justice Morrison R. Waite; Senator William M. Evarts; Edwards Pierrepont, Attorney-General and Minister to Great Britain; Samuel J. Tilden (who did not graduate with the class); Rev. Aaron L. Chapin, President of Beloit College; Prof. Chester S. Lyman; John P. Putnam, Judge on the Massachusetts Supreme Bench; and Prof. Benjamin Silliman, jr. In 1838 William F. Cooper, Judge of Tennessee's court of last resort, graduated, as did Rev. Joseph P. Thompson, and William Strong, Judge of the Supreme Court of Oregon and Washington, when they were Territories. Henry L. Dawes, United States Senator from Massachusetts, is a Yale man of the class of 1839, a classmate of Willard P. Hall, Governor of Missouri; Richard D. Hubbard, Governor of Connecticut; Henry R. Jackson, Minister to Austria and Mexico; James O. Putnam, Minister to Belgium; Charles J. Stillé, Provost of the University of Pennsylvania; and Rev. Francis Wharton, an authority on international law. In 1840 were graduated Henry Booth, Judge of the Illinois Supreme Court; William Chauvenet, the mathematician, Chancellor of Washington University, Missouri; Gideon H. Hollister, Minister to Hayti; Prof. James M. Hoppin; Joseph G. Hoyt, Chancellor of Washington University, Missouri; Charles R. Ingersoll, Governor of Connecticut; George D. Lamont, Judge of the New York Supreme Court; Elias H. Williams, who held like office in Iowa; and Rev. George Thacher, President of Iowa University.

In 1840 were graduated William L. Learned, Gilbert Dean, and Joseph F. Barnard, Judges of New York's Supreme Court. In 1842 the class contained Douglass Boardman, Judge of the New York Supreme Court; Rev. John C. Burroughs, President of Chicago University; Prof. James Hadley, John A. Peters, Chief Judge of the Maine Supreme Court; Prof. John A. Porter; Theodore Runyon, Chancellor of New Jersey; Henry A. Scudder, Judge of the Massachusetts Supreme Court; and the famous antiquarian, J. Hammond Trumbull. Another famous antiquarian, Henry Stevens, graduated a year later. In 1844 graduated Isaac Atwater, Chief Judge of the Minnesota Supreme Court; Charles H. Crane, M. D., Surgeon-General of the Army; Orris S. Ferry, United States Senator from Connecticut; Henry H. Haight, Governor of California; and William B. Washburn, Governor of Massachusetts.

s Senator. William B. Woods, Judge of the United Court, graduated in 1845, and Governor Henry B. nectient, a year later, a classmate of Rensselaer R. the United States District Court for Minnesota.

OLLEGE LIFE—THE BULLY CLUB.

y part of President Day's régime, New Haven was a 0 inhabitants. West of the college there were only hen pastures, where those practicing for debates in ers rehearsed. Down by the bay, where Sargent's is, was the pavilion, a great student resort. The mogeneous population and charming society, being me respects for a college town than now." Already, s of Hillhouse, it was the City of Elms, the spreading rees, uniting across the streets, form one of the great- ew Haven to-day. Till 1827 there was no anthracite buying wood at the woodyard near South College, for use, not sawed. Willis said of the city:[1]

> a poet to make a town, with carte blanche as to trees, gardens, would probably turn out very much such a place as New Haven. he inventor of New Haven was to lay out the streets in squares; nt them, from suburb to water side, with the magnificent elms result is that, at the end of fifty years, the town is buried in

ound New Haven is uncommonly fine and varied, nstantly to holiday walks and sails, and lending a the memories of undergraduate life."[2] The college in October, and through the whole course student npler then than now. It is true that a member of nce expensive dress having become prevalent, the rb it, and a Lycurgan Society was formed which pro- ewhat like that of the Quakers, but failed to have it xtravagance could not have gone very far, since we ikoff, then a Freshman, introduced the unwonted lux- nd paper hangings into his College room, the rumor me to the ears of Prof. Silliman. He inspected the All this love of externals, young man, argues indif- re necessary furniture of your brain, which is your here."[3] Probably few American writers have been by college life than the poet Willis. In the words "It furnished him with a fund of literary material. to the sunshine and changed the homely school-boy

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s, 37 (H. A. Beers).

actors in College." Quoted in "College Words and Customs."

s, chapter II.

chrysalis into a butterfly of uncommon splendor and spread of wing."[1] It was a rather rough life then; all ate in commons till 1842, when the custom was given up, though an unsuccessful attempt to revive it was made in 1866.[2] When they had cider for dinner, each drank in turn from the pitcher till 1815; poor students waited on the table; and in a single term we hear of 600 tumblers and 30 coffee pots being carried off. The quality of the food, though generally good, was not uniformly so, and hence in 1819 there was a three days' rebellion of Freshmen and Sophomores.[3] From the same cause sprang the "Bread and Butter Rebellion," of the summer of 1828. The food was poor, and as it was not improved upon complaint, the students held meetings to confer with the Faculty and then refused to go to commons till the fare was better. President Day refused to treat with them in a state of rebellion and four of the students were summoned and, upon their refusing to come, were expelled. This created much excitement; an open-air meeting of the students was held in Hillhouse avenue and they pledged themselves to stand by each other. Then they went home, cooled off, and wished to come back. The Faculty offered to take back, on confession and apology all but the four who had been expelled. Most men accepted the terms and returned.

In 1830 came another stubborn conflict of students with the Faculty, called the "Conic Sections Rebellion," because of the refusal to recite in that study according to the desires of the Faculty. In July the students petitioned to be allowed to explain Conic Sections from the book and not to have to demonstrate them from the figures. This was refused, and a portion of the class agreed to refuse to recite, and carried their resolution into effect. About 40 signed a paper indorsing those who refused to recite and praying that punishment, if any, should come on them all alike. A few days later, 42 signed a similar paper.[4] The Faculty took them at their word and 44 were expelled. Other Colleges refused to receive them, and this drastic policy had such an effect that, from that time, there has been no organized resistance to the College authorities. Pranks of various sorts were popular, such as painting the President's house red, white, and blue, or putting a cow on the top floor of a dormitory. In 1823, Willis wrote to his father, just after Christmas:

The Southern students seem restless under the restriction of a lesson on playday. There were many of them drunk last evening and still more to-day. Christmas has always been, ever since the establishment of the College, emphatically a day of tricks, windows broken, bell rope cut, freshmen squirted, and every imaginable scene of dissipation acted out in full. Last night they barred the entry doors of South

[1] Life of N. P. Willis, Chap. II.

[2] It has been revived successfully, for those who desire to pay a moderate amount for board. The old gymnasium was remodeled for this purpose, and in the fall of 1892 the college began to furnish meals for 400 men there.

[3] Four Years at Yale, 238–247.

[4] College Book, 86. Yale Book, I, 137.

e government and then illuminated the building. This morn-
m doors were locked and the key stolen and we were obliged
oors to get in, and then we were not much better off, for the
ter and the wicks gone.[1]

Town and Gown Conflicts, in which a chosen com-
jor Bully," led on the students.

nt was rescued from jail; in 1806, there was a battle
s;" in 1811, during a riot with sailors, the campus was
; in 1815, a party of students, going to the Dragon Inn
d a fight with the sailors there; in 1819, there was a
udents and sailors at Long Wharf, and, in 1820, the
owers had hard work dispersing a mob which threat-
the Medical School on account of the disinterring a
The Bully Club, of famous memory, now presumed to
e hall of one of the Senior societies, was a huge knotty
e been wrested from one of a band of townsmen in
s yearly bestowed, with set form of speech, on the
he Senior Class, who, thenceforth, acted as Class Presi-
College in all riots and conflicts. In addition to the
"Minor Bully" was chosen, usually a small man, who
sident of the class. Finally a faction in the class,
e Bully not elegant enough, chose a Marshal; this
g, which ended in a fight between the two parties on
Day, 1840, breaking up the procession to church.
culty passed a law, "prohibiting all class organization
ever,"[3] and this vote is in force to day.

as a firemen's riot with the students, and in 1843 a
About this time, or earlier, arose the custom of
chapel first after morning prayers, a custom estab-
o prevent fights at the door with the Seniors.[5]

NING OF ATHLETICS AND JOURNALISM.

1826, $300 were appropriated by the Corporation for
paring of the grounds for a gymnasium and the erec-
for gymnastic exercises, with a view to the promotion
he students." This gymnasium was not under cover,
the period of President Day.[6]

Weeks (43), then a Junior, bought a boat, from which
ginning of the Yale Navy. The first boat of the
oared one, called the *Pioneer*. In a few weeks two

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lis, Chap. II
L. H. Bagg.
," 500-518. "Sketches of Yale College" in "College Words
, 500.

more were procured, the *Nautilus* and the *Iris*, the latter manned by Freshmen. The Sophomores had a canoe with eight short oars, called the *Centipede*. The interest in boating once started has never waned.[1]

Apparently, the first project to start a college periodical is found in a letter from the Harvard Chapter of Φ Β Κ to the Yale Chapter, before 1800, suggesting that the fraternity issue such a paper. The plan came to naught, and Yale's first periodical was the "Literary Cabinet," which appeared November 15, 1806. It was edited by T. S. Grimké, L. E. Wales, and J. Sutherland, and announced its "unalterable resolve to appropriate the pecuniary profits to the education of poor students in this seminary;" but apparently did not have much to give them, for it suspended publication after the first volume. It was followed by many equally short-lived undergraduate papers: "The Athenæum," 1814; "Yale Crayon," 1823; "Sitting Room," 1830; "Student's Companion," 1831; "Little Gentleman," 1831; "Medley," 1833; "Literary Quidnunc," 1838; "Collegian," 1841; "College Cricket," 1846; and "City of Elms," 1846.[2] In 1836, however, was founded a monthly which still lives, the oldest college periodical and "generally recognized to be among the best of college journals,"[3] "The Yale Literary Magazine." Its founders, E. O. Carter, F. A. Coe, William M. Evarts, Chester S. Lyman, and W. S. Scarborough, were all members of the famous class of 1837, and ever since that time it has been edited by five members of the senior class. In February, 1886, it issued its semicentennial number, containing articles from such distinguished former editors as Donald G. Mitchel, Judge F. M. Finch, W. W. Crapo, President Daniel C. Gilman, Charlton T. Lewis, President Andrew D. White, Prof. Thomas K. Lounsbury, and Prof. E. R. Sill. The founder of the "Lit," as it is called, was William T. Bacon, who was not chosen editor only because he did not care for it. The character of the contributions to the "Lit" has always been high, and it has been an exponent of what is best in student thought. An election by one's class to a "Lit"[4] editorship is one of the greatest honors of the course and is diligently striven after.

On November 5, 1840, on account of the firemen's riot, appeared the first number of the "Yale Banner." "Richelieu" Robinson, of the class of '42, was one of the principal contributors, and it was intended as the students' organ against the firemen. It suspended on December 10. On November 3, 1842, appeared Vol. I, No. 5, as an annual. In 1845, Vol. II followed, and ever since that date the "Banner" has yearly appeared with a fund of interesting information. Up to 1865 it was a four-page folio sheet, followed in a week or so, after 1853, by a two-page folio supplement. In 1866 it appeared as a double sheet, and from 1870 onwards it has been an octavo pamphlet. It is filled with val-

[1] Yale Book, II, 274.
[2] Four Years at Yale, 425–460.
[3] Thwing, 92.
[4] "Origin of the Lit," Rev. C. S. Lyman, Yale Literary Magazine, L, 181.

ation. At one time it is said to have been owned Beta Society, but of late years the proprietorship of the "Lit" editors, who sell the right of publication to r. It appears about December 1.[2]

ALUMNI MEETINGS.

mni Association was organized, but it soon died. In anized, with Chancellor Kent as president.[3] It still meetings on the Tuesday morning of Commencement of 1821, in 1824, held the first triennial reunion, a by all subsequent classes, except 1858, which post- nt of the rebellion, till 1865. Other especial reunions he sixth, tenth, fifteenth, twentieth, twenty fifth, and ries of graduation. The class of 1836 began the pub- ial records, which custom other classes have fol- of 1844 started the practice of giving a silver cup to n to a member of the class marrying after graduation. ven to a girl; but the class of 1849 decided it should n a boy, and the law has so remained.[3] The class of , and 1885, having no child to which to give it, cele- sian Feast."

GROWTH OF THE SOCIETY SYSTEM.

ty system at Yale is of at least as great importance llege, and the honors it offers are, to many students in attractive than the honors of high scholarship.[4] ent Day's administration the old literary societies t being affected by the Greek Letter fraternities or feeling. "Brothers," starting with the class of 1768, ded in the catalogue not according to its social rank, the alphabet, soon got into friendly relations with its ula." From 1801 onward for some years, all Freshmen nately to the two societies. John C. Calhoun, how- oing to Brothers, where most of the Southerners were, lotted to Linonia. In 1830 open war began again, and embled Freshman class was addressed by the respect- the societies, with the so called "statement of facts," iety showed its superiority to the other. Until about s, which were held on Wednesdays, at 8 p. m., were y period for these societies was the first third of this hich time the offices in them were fiercely sought for. 0, when the faculty stopped the practice, they had , etc. Red was the color of Linonia and blue that of

ale, 425-46 Four Years at Yale, 535-541.
(G. E. Day [4] Thwing, American Colleges, 72.

On April 22, 1840, Linonia sent out an "appeal for a fire-proof building for the use of the society, to contain the library," and summoned a general meeting on August 17, when N. P. Willis read a poem. However, an arrangement was made by which the library was stored in one of the wings of the College Library Building. W. D. Bishop (Yale College, 1849) gave the society $1,000 in 7 per cent railroad bonds, for Sophomore and Freshman prize debates. In 1858 a Senior debate was added and a Junior one in 1865.

The society aided in building Alumni Hall and was given a hall in the north part of the second story. This room, still called Linonian Hall, was adorned in 1858 with two life-size statues of Demosthenes and Sophocles, made by E. S. Bartholomew, in Rome. These were placed in the corners. In 1853 occurred the Centennial Celebration, which was very fine. W. M. Evarts ('37) delivered an address, and F. M. Finch ('49) read a poem in the North Church. After this there was a banquet in the newly-dedicated Alumni Hall.

The motto of Linonia was "Quiescit in perfecto." It issued three catalogues of members, in 1841, 1853, and 1860. Its library was one of its most beneficial features; in 1770 it had 100 books; in 1800, 475; in 1822, 1,187; in 1837, 5,581; in 1846, 10,103; in 1860, 11,300; in 1870, 13,300. The money to buy books, etc., came from the monthly dues, payable to the treasurer up to 1860, when the College assumed the duty of collecting the money, and assessed every student $6, and after 1867 $8, on the term bills. In 1867, when the College Reading Room was founded in South Middle, the expenses attendant on it were met by a society tax. Brothers in Unity had likewise a wing in the College Library for their books and a hall 50 by 25 feet and 25 feet high, the exact size of Linonia's in the south part of the second story of Alumni Hall, to which it also contributed. Over the President's desk was a picture in which Col. Humphreys, the founder, was the chief figure. Brothers contributed to the Pilgrims' Monument at Plymouth and started prize debates in 1853, completing the whole plan as Linonia did with prizes of $20, $15, and $10. In old times, the alumni of these societies had reunions at Commencement and in 1868 Brothers had its Centennial Celebration. This was held in the North Church, at which place T. M. Clark ('31) gave an oration, and Theodore Bacon ('53) read a poem. This was followed by a social reception in the Art School Building. The celebration was inferior to Linonia's on account of the decay of the societies. Brothers' motto was "E parvis oriuntur magna." Brothers issued catalogues in 1841 and 1854. Its library numbered in 1781, 163 volumes; in 1808, 723; in 1825, 1,730; in 1835, 4,565; in 1846, 9,140; in 1851, 11,651; in 1870, 13,400. After gradual decay both the societies died in 1872. An attempt to revive Linonia was made in 1878; it languished a few years and died in 1881.[1]

[1] Four Years at Yale, 190-221.

s S. Grimké Y. C., 1807; founded a third society, soon died, and in 1819 the "Calliopean Society," or formed. It was started by Southern men because or president of Brothers had been defeated. It had rs, which number it never afterwards reached, but it drawing the Southern students. The middle room of of Alumni Hall was allotted to Calliope, but it dis- room was ready for occupancy. It had a library which , 400 volumes; in 1831, 2,960; in 1840, 5,000; and in books were partly given to the College and partly proceeds two scholarships were founded. Its only 1839.[1]

L. Kingsley founded a society, $\Psi \Delta \Theta$, which seems een a rival of $\Phi B K$. It was intended to compliment uished from scholastic ability. It took one-fourth of fortnightly, at which times essays were read. It had of 100 volumes, which it later gave to the College. As the editors of the "Lit" were generally mem- it in 1868,[2] after which time its badge, a golden tri- watch charm, was used exclusively by them for many he "Lit" editors elected to the society several other zed literary ability, as they have done in each suc- ugh, as sometimes the men are never even notified of whole affair is somewhat of a farce, and to-day the is to mark the "Lit" editors.

ent society system of class societies began with the ugust and sphinx-like Skull and Bones Society, whose lloned in the shape of the emblems from which the ame. It has exercised an immense influence in Yale, n it takes from each Senior class are supposed to be lative excellence. In 1856, it built a hall on High This is a windowless, iron-doored, prison-like, brown- hose interior is known only to the members of the bers 322 are on the badge and have some mysterious ciety is incorporated as the "Russell Trust Associa- from Gen. William H. Russell (Y. C., 1833), an early , a rival society, now equal in rank, was formed on the —the Scroll and Key Society, popularly so called forming its golden badge. It built a fine marble hall in 1870. It is incorporated as the W. L. Kingsley From 1864 to 1868, a third Senior society, "Spade ed, which was succeeded for 1869 by "Crown and re successful attempt to found a third Senior society

[1] Yale, [illegible] 223.
[2] Yale, [illegible] 236.

Four Years at Yale, 143–189.

was made in 1884, when the "Wolfshead Society" was formed and built an elegant hall of brownstone on Prospect street. This is more like a club house, with many windows, though these are not transparent. Wolfshead does not preserve the intense secrecy of the other societies and seems rapidly gaining in strength. In 1837, $\Lambda\ \Delta\ \Phi$, first of the Greek letter fraternities, came to Yale. Three students came from Hamilton College, where the fraternity was founded, to Yale to form a chapter there. It was very successful for many years; but later, through internal dissensions and ill-success in college politics, it lost strength and was suspended in 1874. $\Psi\ \Gamma$ was brought to Yale in 1838 by "Richelieu" Robinson from Union, where it was founded. The Yale Chapter, B, built a brick hall on High street in 1870. Its corporate name is the "Trumbull Trust Association." It has always drawn its membership from the Junior class and, so at Yale, has been a class society and not a four years' one, as at other colleges. $\Lambda\ \Delta\ \Phi$ was also a Junior society till just before its suspension. In 1843, the fraternity of $\Delta\ K\ E$, the largest in membership of all American College Fraternities, was founded at Yale. The mother chapter, Φ, built a hall in 1861 on York street, much of the money therefor being given by Henry Holt, the publisher. It is also a Junior society and has as its corporate name "the Winthrop Trust Association."[1] The elections to $\Psi\ \Gamma$ and $\Delta\ K\ E$ were given at night with accompaniment of calcium lights, songs, etc., and furnished a weird picture. This custom was given up in 1893.

The Sophomores also have had societies: $K\ \Sigma\ \Theta$, the first, founded in 1838 by the class of 1841, perished through internal dissensions in 1858. It founded chapters at Wesleyan and Amherst, chapters now long dead. $\Lambda\ \Sigma\ \Phi$, founded in 1846, was abolished in 1864 on account of its character. This was the first action of the kind taken by the faculty. Chapters were founded at Amherst, Princeton, and Marietta, all of which are dead. These societies published annual fucilletons, $K\ \Sigma\ \Theta$'s being the "Banger," issued from 1845 to 1850 and in 1852, and $\Lambda\ \Sigma\ \Phi$'s the Tomahawk from 1847 to 1851. These were chiefly abusive of each other. From $\Lambda\ \Sigma\ \Phi$ sprang $\Phi\ \Theta\ \Psi$ and $\Delta\ B\ X$; these even sometimes wore the old pin. Their songs in Yale song books are almost the only traces of them remaining. They were abolished for their disorder in 1877, and the date of their abolition is still observed as a festival, at which a procession is formed and jokes are played on the Freshmen. These societies published song books, but no catalogues, and were chiefly feeders to the Junior societies.[2]

The first freshman society was $K\ \Sigma\ E$, founded in 1840 by Senator O. S. Ferry and others of 1844. It founded branches at Amherst, Troy Polytechnic, and Dartmouth, but all are now dead. A rival arose in 1845, in $\Delta\ K$, founded by members of 1849. This had chapters at Amherst, Dartmouth, Center College (Kentucky) North Carolina Uni-

[1] Four Years at Yale, 105–142. [2] Four Years at Yale, 87–105.

of Virginia, and University of Mississippi; none of issued a paper called the Battery in 1850. These l hunt for Freshmen every fall, each striving to get were abolished by the Faculty in 1880 on account of campaign banner of a political club during one of They both issued statements of honors obtained by order to induce Freshmen to join them.[1] $\Sigma\ \Delta$ was a from 1849 to 1860, with chapters at New York Uni- st, and $\Gamma\ N$, founded in 1855, by J. A. Twichell, and 859, was non-secret and survived though often in a ll the fall of 1889. These societies intensified the lass feeling and induced men to endeavor to obtain

IONAL SCHOOLS UNDER PRESIDENT DAY.

President Day's time, and till other schools drew away Medical School flourished. In sixteen years it had largest class of 41 members leaving in 1829. In 1821 of anatomical preparations and materia medica," and was to be established as soon as the funds of the which they never did. In 1829 Dr. Smith died and ors were appointed, William Tully (Yale College, materia medica and therapeutics, which post he held P. Beers (Yale College, 1808), professor of midwifery, ill 1856; and Thomas Hubbard, professor of surgery, re till his death in 1838. On Dr. Hubbard's death r (Yale College, 1820) was made professor of anat- y, which chair he held till his death in 1863, and the Knight was transferred to the chair of surgery, in which he died in 1864. Henry Bronson (M. D., 1827) Tully's successor in 1842, holding the post till 1860. and 1866 the charter was revised by the legislature.[3] oduced as early as in any American medical college. ded at first the lectures on that subject given to the in the academical department.[4]

tion of the college there had been a class of resident ts; but the Yale Theological School, as a distinct unded under President Day. W. C. Fowler and S. 7) began to study theology with Prof. Fitch, the col- raduation. The second term the number increased 12. Prof. Kingsley taught them Hebrew, and Prof.

Year of Yale, 7 86.
Yale Book [illegible] B. Silliman, jr.
J. L. Kingsley, 3 : Yale Book, [illegible]
Yale Book [illegible]

Goodrich elocution and the composition of sermons. In the early part of 1822, 15 of the graduating class petitioned to be organized into a theological class. The question came up whether instruction in theology should be given up or the means enlarged, so as better to correspond with the advance in theological learning. Prof. Fitch supported the application, and said one professor could not teach theologues and be college pastor at the same time, as the standards of theological education were being raised. The corporation voted to appeal for an endowment of $20,000 for a new professorship to be called the Dwight professorship of didactic theology.[1] A condition of the subscribers was "that the professor should make the same profession of faith as President Stiles and President Dwight did at their induction into the presidency."[2] Nine thousand two hundred dollars of the endowment was lost in the failure of the Eagle Bank, but subscriptions came in so fast that $27,612.44 was raised, and Rev. Nathaniel W. Taylor, who for ten years had been pastor of the First Church, New Haven, was chosen professor. Among the contributions were $5,000 from Timothy Dwight, jr., $1,666 from Prof. Fitch, $750 and land worth $1,250 from William Leffinwell, $1,000 from Henry L. Ellsworth, of Hartford, Titus Street, and Cornelia Hubbard each; from Aristarchus Champion, of Champion, N. Y., $1,590, and $1,000 from a legacy of Mrs. Martha Denison, of Wilkesbarre, Pa.[3] Prof. Kingsley gave instruction in Hebrew and Prof. Fitch in New Testament Greek and criticism of sermons. The intention from the first was to have the department separate and to receive aid only from college professors, besides the professor of divinity, till the school had enough funds to have teachers of its own.

In 1824, J. W. Gibbs (Yale College, 1809) was employed to teach sacred literature, Greek, and Hebrew.[4] His salary was partly paid by his serving as college librarian.[5] An endowment of $9,229.22 was secured for a professorship of sacred literature, of which amount Eleazer F. Backus and F. Toppan, of New York, each gave $1,000.[3] On the endowment of the professorship, Gibbs was formally inducted into office in 1826. In 1839, Prof. Goodrich, who had taken a great interest in the school, was transferred to it as professor of the pastoral charge, continuing therein until his death in 1860. Profs. Taylor and Gibbs also served till their death, which occurred in 1858 and 1861, respectively. Prof. Taylor was the central figure of the school, blending the attributes of a philosopher and an orator with subtle, logical, and strong conceptions, and a vivid, clear, earnest, and impressive delivery. He had striking personality, with his dark lustrous eyes, and deep-toned modulated voice, "rising at times to a strain of powerful and stirring eloquence." He had the courage of a soldier, but was also "gentle and

[1] J. L. Kingsley, 36; Yale Book, 1, 128; College Book, 84.
[2] J. L. Kingsley, 36.
[3] Baldwin, Hist. of Yale.
[4] Yale Book, 1, 128.
[5] College Book, 85.

[illegible] nature, he [illegible] his fellow-men. His mind was great, there being much more in the man than in paper." In [illegible] he presented a "[illegible] of eloquence" many thought [illegible]. An earnest controversy [illegible] in the [illegible] of the East Windsor now the [illegible] School, [illegible] which will be discussed more fully [illegible] effects of the [illegible] were known as "Taylorism" and [illegible] talking [illegible] from Rev. Bennet Tyler, the [illegible] part [illegible] Dr. Taylor defended himself in the [illegible]. President [illegible] characterizes the New Haven [illegible], as "a development of the independent but reverent [illegible] reasoning which was begun by the elder Edwards [illegible] President Dwight. Viewed in another aspect, it [illegible] to introduce the ethical element into the defense of the Christian system."[1] It has been said to be [illegible], midway between Calvinism and Arminianism." [illegible] Dr. Taylor [illegible] he loved discussion; but controversial [illegible] was what his soul abhorred."[4]

[illegible] characterized as having the disposition of a philosopher [illegible] was [illegible] a scholar, "patient, accurate, [illegible], [illegible] and skeptical in intellectual habit, [illegible] religious [illegible]." Prof. Goodrich was a discriminating, cultured man, and versed in literature." His [illegible] were "enthusiasm of character, contagious [illegible], self-denying benevolence, and catholic spirit."[5]

[illegible] with the founding of the theological school [illegible] of Washington (now Trinity) College, Hartford. [illegible] that fact, in May, 1823, adhesion to the Saybrook [illegible] required from instructors, and President Wool[illegible] that June, is said to have been the first who [illegible] take that test of orthodoxy.[6] It may be noted [illegible] University was also founded during President [illegible] in 1831. The theological students, rooming first [illegible] Old Chapel and then in Divinity College, had a great [illegible] college, through their enthusiasm.[7] Partly through [illegible] revivals of interest in religion occurred. There [illegible] in fifty-six years, those of 1821, 1831, and 1858 [illegible] noteworthy, though interest was especially shown in [illegible] 1835, 1837, 1840, 1841, 1843, 1846, 1849, 1857, and

[illegible] the Divinity School was rapid, there being 600 students [illegible] death. However, when the professors grew old

[illegible] (G. P. Fisher)

[illegible]

[illegible] Chapel, 17.

[illegible]

[illegible] Yale Book, 1, 130 (G. P. Fisher).

[illegible] Yale Book, 1, 129.

[illegible] College Book, 85.

and the controversy died out, the students fell off in numbers, partly owing to the meagerness of the endowment.[1]

Dr. Sturtevant, president of Illinois College, who was a student under Dr. Taylor, says:

> A more fervent faith in the truth and certain triumph of the Gospel has seldom existed in modern times than in the young men under Dr. Taylor's instruction. Those who distrusted Dr. Taylor's teachings feared that he was undermining fundamental Christianity. The impression he made upon his pupils was exactly the reverse of this. The enlightened and thoughtful that were feeling the influence of his teaching found themselves happily relieved from many philosophical difficulties, with which the Gospel had before seemed to them embarrassed and impeded. They were raised to a fervent and undoubting faith, which they had not before experienced in its truth, its capability of being successfully defended, and its power to overcome and save our country and the world.

In 1828 a band of fourteen theologues, known as the "Illinois band," went forth to Christianize that State. These men, the first organized association from an Eastern seminary to a Western State, founded churches and schools and Illinois College, and had "no small influence on the public school system of the West." During Dr. Taylor's lifetime a large proportion of every class, "moved by the example of these pioneers," followed their footsteps. These students and other alumni in the Northwest "make a constituency whose enthusiastic and grateful loyalty to their Alma Mater has helped to make Yale a truly national institution of learning."[2]

President Day's administration also completed the circle of the professional schools by the addition of the Yale Law School to the college in 1824. In the latter part of the eighteenth century, and the early part of the present one, Judge Charles Chauncey, "a lawer of extensive practice," had a private law school in New Haven. Among other students were Judge Samuel Hubbard, of the Massachusetts supreme court, and Judge Wayne, of the United States Supreme Court. In the early years of this century, Hon. Seth P. Staples (Yale College, 1797) commenced a private law school. Early in his professional life he collected an unusually valuable library, and soon attained to large practice and high reputation. Samuel Hitchcock (Yale College, 1809) studied under him, and, after serving as a tutor at Yale from 1811 to 1815, assisted Mr. Staples in the school, and when the latter moved to New York, in 1824, took the school in connection with David Daggett, judge of the superior court. Mr. Staples died in 1861, aged 86; he stood in the front rank of his profession, especially in commercial and patent law. He was magnetic and, writing few lectures, was noted for his off-hand comments and illustrations.[3] As most of the students were Yale graduates, it was not a surprising innovation that their names were inserted in the college catalogue in 1824, though their connection with the college

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[1] Yale Book, II, 23.

[2] College Book, 87.

[3] Woolsey, "Address at fiftieth anniversary."

gue at first, the degree of LL. B. not being given until

were 10 students; in 1831 the number had increased
e professorship of law was revived, a small endowment
the professorship was named for Chancellor Kent.
was appointed to it, with the duty of occasionally
eniors. Judge Daggett (Yale College, 1783) was a
man of the old school, always wearing knickerbockers
s. He retired from office in 1848, and died in 1851.
was "exact and precise, clear and copious."[1] He died
W. L. Storrs (Yale College, 1814) succeeded him, hold-
ear. In 1842 Isaac H. Townsend, esq. (Yale College,
ployed in the law school, continuing in that connec-
, in 1847.[2] Henry White taught in 1846 and 1847.
school library was begun by buying Judge Hitch-
ate library, and in 1846 the law school was formally
t of the college by vote of the corporation.[3] The old
gned or died about the time of President Day's resig-
rst period of the law school's history was ended.

NATION AND DEATH OF PRESIDENT DAY.

over the college for twenty-nine years[4], a longer period
n has done, President Day resigned in 1846. He out-
ion twenty-one years, and was a member of the cor-
in two months of his death. He died on August 22,
rs. His funeral address was delivered by his suc-
Woolsey.[5]

PRESIDENT THEODORE D. WOOLSEY (1846–1871).

o modern history, for all of Yale's students feel the
man, the greatest of Yale's great presidents, and to
luate the venerable form of this beloved man was
bout the college to which he devoted his life. On
he was inaugurated president of Yale. He was born
y, October 31, 1801, the son of W. W. Woolsey, a
sister of the elder president Dwight. At his taking
k in 1831, "he brought with him from his studies in
e acquaintance with the new philology, a refined and

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s at fiftieth anniversary of the law school."
ersity, 74.
s at fiftieth anniversary."
ected with Yale 60 years. It was a day of long professorships,
51 years, Reuel Knight, and J. L. Kingsley for 50 years, C. A.
W. Taylor 36, E. T. Fitch 35. Average to 1886 for President's
nd for the 132 professors to that date 16.7 years. (Dexter, Yale
)

genuine literary and æsthetic taste, and an active and fervid love of goodness and abhorrence of evil."[1] During his professorship he issued editions of Greek texts, which are still in use. These were the Alcestis in 1833, the Antigone in 1835, the Electra in 1837, the Prometheus in the same year, and the Gorgias in 1842.[1]

At President Day's retirement from office, Woolsey only was thought of as successor, and so he became president, though at first reluctant to take the office. He had been licensed to preach in 1825; but was not ordained until the day of his inauguration. He had studied not only theology but also law under Charles Chauncey, of Philadelphia, and, "judged by the highest standards, he was a ripe and finished scholar."[2] He had already won distinction and had done good service, not only to the college, but also to the cause of classical education throughout the country, by the new interest in Greek he had excited. He endeavored, at once, on taking the presidency, to quicken the desire for learning and founded, by the gift of $1,000 in each of four successive years, scholarships called the Woolsey scholarships, to be held by the student in each Freshman class passing the best examination in Greek, Latin composition, and algebra, and tenable by him throughout his course, provided he took calculus in the junior year. To make scholarship more thorough, he instituted biennial examinations in writing, those terrible bugbears of some thirty years ago. Previously, the senior year had been the easiest of the four; he made it one of the most laborious and profitable. He himself gave the seniors instruction in history, political science, and international law, in the last of which he was a recognized American authority. From the "example of this laborious and conscientious scholar" the students obtained a "higher conception of the nature of true scholarship."[3] For some years before he became president he, with some of the faculty, encouraged students to become post graduates in New Haven, and the founding of the now famous Scientific School is nearly contemporaneous with his inauguration. The Art School was also founded in his administration, and his article in the New Englander in 1866 proposed the solution of the problem by which the alumni obtained representation on the board of trustees.[4] He was very popular with the students, whom he ever strove to make, quoting his own words, "manly, truthful, honorable, able by their strength of principle to resist the debasing influences that are abroad in the land," in a word, that they might be "Christian gentlemen"[5] His administration was especially marked "by bringing the whole body of students under the influence which proceeded from a broader culture than any to which they had been subjected before."

At the time of his resignation it was said of him that "the atmosphere of his presence was a place where superficial acquisition, conceit

[1] Yale Book, I, 141.
[2] Yale Book, I, 147.
[3] Dexter, Yale University, 65.
[4] College Book, 92.
[5] Closing sentence of address at President Porter's inaugural, 18.

l the mere ability to use the tongue glibly, when there ble to communicate, could not flourish."[1] President ssor, said of him:

lent Woolsey is distinguished for the exactness of his knowledge, udition, and the breadth and sagacity of his judgment; as a y of his imaginative and ethical spirit, and for the rigor of his hing after and imparting the truth; as a theologian, for the l knowledge, the catholicity and candor of his childlike faith; varmth and endurance of his attachments; and as a man, for the nalities, which have secured to him an enviable place in the love neration. Few men have been more distinguished in this coun- o great a variety of departments of scholarship and culture, and d for themselves the solid respect of so great a number of their personal and moral excellence.

ivered an historical address at the one hundred and ry of the college, which is excellent authority for the Yale. His famous "International Law" appeared in rcely less famous "Essays on Divorce" in 1869. He the ideal academic man in character, work, and rela- and the public." He loved the true and sincere, and nd was full of broad human sympathies and the cour- s of a gentleman." "His English style was remark- l purity, both in conversation and in his writings." rmons are marked by "limpid, pure, direct simplicity ileless and gentle, he could be stern on occasion, and r of men. His sane and well-balanced mind has been eadth and elegance of scholarship, in purity of taste, ought and precision of style" by no American college ve any of them equaled him in the ability to govern.[3] ation and if Yale is to-day a grand university drawing most widely separated parts of the country, it is due than to any other man. The completeness of his work ude difficult to realize, and his complete absence of not made his personality stand out as strongly as it elf-restraint did not come from timidity or lack of cter, but from such great strength and nobleness that o be self-forgetful.[4] But we can not be forgetful of ale student feels his influence and will do so till the

ght, in his report[5] for 1889, speaks of President Wool- acher influencing those he taught by his character well as by his daily instructions. He was a grand

[1] "There are few men in the world who have done more to make nd to make simplicity and honesty and integrity precious and been done by this good and useful man."—Scribners, III, 246.

y 4, and 11, 1889. [4] N. Y. Evening Post, July, 1889.

ly 2, 1889. [5] Report for 1889, 5.

man, exhibiting in all his life the righteousness and truth of a Christian manhood. He accomplished a great work, but he was in himself more than he was in his working. It was a privilege to know him, and it is an inspiration to remember his pure and true and holy life."

NEW PROFESSORSHIPS.

Rev. Noah Porter, who followed Dr. Woolsey in the presidency, was one of the first professors appointed by him, taking the Clark professorship of moral philosophy and metaphysics in 1847. The endowment for this chair had been accumulating since 1823.[1] President Porter held this chair until his death. He was born in Farmington, Conn., in 1811, graduated from Yale in 1831, and at the time of his assuming the professorship was engaged in preaching. The next year James Hadley was made professor of Greek, and held the position till his death in 1872. He was a man of great scholarship, and the Greek grammar he prepared is one of the most widely used. In 1863 he had a worthy assistant given him in Lewis R. Packard (Yale College, 1856), who continued at his post till his death in 1884.

The old Professorship of Divinity was filled, after Prof. Fitch's retirement from active service in 1854, by the appointment of Rev. George P. Fisher. He relinquished the College pastorate in 1861 to take the Professorship of Ecclesiastical History in the Divinity School, which he now holds. His writings in his field have given him a wide and honorable reputation. In the College pastorate Rev. William B. Clarke served from 1863 to 1866 and Rev. Oliver E. Daggett from 1867 to 1870.

Prof. A. D. Stanley dying in 1853, two years later Herbert A. Newton (Yale College, 1850) was appointed his successor as Professor of Mathematics. He now holds the position, and is one of the foremost scientists of the country.

Prof. Olmsted died in 1859, and a year later Prof. Charles Loomis (Yale College, 1830) was called to fill his chair of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy. He continued in that position till his death, August 15, 1889. He was a solitary and eccentric man, but one of great learning and power of research, the titles of his scientific papers exceeding 100 in number. He was professor at Western Reserve College 1836 to 1844, and then at the University of New York till 1860. His mathematical text-books achieved vast success, having been translated into Chinese and Arabic. Over 500,000 copies of them have been sold. His favorite study was meteorology, in which he was probably unsurpassed. At his death he gave his property to the College to be used for his favorite sciences. In 1850, James D. Dana (Yale College, 1833) was made Professor of Geology, and in 1864 Mineralogy was added to his chair. In early life he was on the United States Exploring Expedition which circumnavigated the world, and his manuals on Geology and kindred subjects are standard authorities.

[1] Dexter, Y. U., p. 65.

the vacancy occasioned in the chair of English Litera-
of Prof. Larned, Cyrus Northrop (Yale College, 1857)
left in 1884 to become President of the University of
as built up a great institution in the Northwest.
m D. Whitney, who is one of the most distinguished
s in the world, was made Professor of Sanskrit, to
ve Philology was added in 1870. Othniel C. Marsh
60) was made Professor of Paleontology in 1866. Au-
(Yale College, 1812) the founder of the Art School,
sorship of Modern Languages in 1864, and Rev. Edward
nted. In 1867 he began teaching, taking the place for-
temporary teachers, mostly foreigners. In 1879 he
a New York pastorate.[1]
C. Durfee endowed a Professorship of History, and A.
College, 1857), the present incumbent, was appointed.[2]
ge, "considered as a society of scholars," grew.[3]

ALUMNI IN THE CORPORATION.

only change in the College charter was that, with the
tate Constitution in 1819, the six senior assistants were
enior senators. In course of time these senators came to
ularly, as they cared but little for their office. So it
t discontent arose. Furthermore, the alumni began
they had no voice in the management of the institu-
on July 21, 1869, the alumni meeting appointed Dr.
liam M. Evarts, C. J. Stillé, Alphonso Taft, and Frank-
mittee to consider what change, if any, is desirable in
They advised that the State be requested to give up
ving the six senior senators on the board, and that six
be elected, one each year, to take their place, though
ere not unanimous in advising any change. The re-

ny of the councils of Yale College, its steady adherence to a
olicy, with but little public debate or agitation, its undemon-
stance, in conformity with the changing demands of the age
learning and science, are owing to the fact that its president,
corporation have acted together in harmonious concert and with

s adopted, recommended by Governor Jewell in his
to the legislature, and approved by it.[2] In 1872, Al
liam M. Evarts, William B. Washburn, Henry B. Har-
alter Phelps, and Joseph E. Sheffield were chosen the

the first one in the Academical Department since 1801. Yale

versity, p. 65.
D. C. Gilman.

first alumni members by the body of graduates, all above five years' standing being given a vote. The corporation is now so constituted and is satisfactory to the great majority of graduates. Efforts for a further change have been thoroughly discountenanced by the sober common sense of the alumni, who observe the marvelous progress of the college under the present management. To the ministerial portion of the corporation too high praise can not be given.

It is a judicious and progressive body. The history of Yale College is one of the wonders of the land; how a few country ministers, robbing their scanty book shelves for material with which to found a college, have built up a national power; how a few country ministers, with their scanty funds, have not only kept the college out of debt and out of discredit, but have made it a beacon light of truth and learning from Maine to California; how a few country ministers have attracted to their graceless barracks and their ill-ventilated lecture rooms scholars from every State in the Union, from every walk in life, from every denomination of Christians, and have fitted those scholars to shine on the bench, in the pulpit, and in the inventor's laboratory, in the editor's chair, in the Senate, in the Cabinet, and in the world of letters. All this, I say, is a wonder of wonders to those who are not mindful that the country ministers of Connecticut are a wise, a self-sacrificing, a sagacious, a learned, and a public-spirited body of men.[1]

INCREASE IN FINANCES.

Yale's finances have never been superabundant, yet the wise and far-seeing conduct of the administration has been so admirable that the money at hand, though never ample, has always been made sufficient by some means or other. Though we may not quite admit that "if man's achievements are to be judged according to the means placed at his disposal," the past managers of the college must be looked upon as prodigies of worldly wisdom and executive ability, for their doings were really little less than marvellous; still we must feel the truth of this, that "in the whole history of the institution there seems never to have been an expense incurred which was not absolutely necessary and which did not produce the needed return." The funds grew slowly.[2] Charles Astor Bristed (Yale College, 1839) established a scholarship open to the sophomore or junior passing the best examination in classics and mathematics, yielding about $125 and tenable till the end of the third year after graduation. In 1859, Henry A. Hurburt, of New York, gave $1,000 for the one standing second in the examination for the Woolsey scholarship, already mentioned, and Charles M. Runk (Yale College, 1845), of Allentown, Pa., in 1865, gave the same amount for the third freshman scholarship, given for work in the same examination. In 1859, Rev. William A. Macy (Yale College, 1844), of Shanghai, China, left $10,000 for a graduate scholarship, tenable for three years. In 1858, Hon. Henry L. Ellsworth (Yale College, 1810) left a legacy for the benefit of students preparing for the ministry. This fund became available

[1] D. C. Gilman, New Englander, 28, 302.
[2] Four Years at Yale, 704.

amounts to over $56,000. In 1854, a bequest of $10,000 rmar Johns (Yale College, 1818), of Canandaigua, N. ome for six scholarships of $100 a year, for deserving l means. In 1850, David C. De Forest (Yale College,), which accumulated till it amounted to $20,000. The used as follows: The corporation should "procure to y a gold medal of the value of $100, to be denominated ize, with such inscription as the president shall direct, at scholar of the senior class who shall write and pro- sh oration in the best manner on some day, either in y or June of each year."[1] This prize was first given in ranted to the best one of the Townsend prize speakers as one of the very highest and most desired honors of e.

of $106,390 was raised, of which about $70,000 went al Department. This enabled the corporation to raise s, which had remained the same since 1817,[2] when they 0. The increase in 1854 was to $1,800, and this sum creased until $3,000 was reached in 1871.[3]

S. B. Chittenden, sr., of Brooklyn, N. Y., gave $40,000 hip of divinity, making it at the time the best endowed ersity. The endowment of a professorship of modern gustus R. Street has already been spoken of. Prof. E. owed the professorship of Sanskrit with $50,000, and of Hartford, gave $10,000 for a professorship of Latin erature.[4]

. De Forest, of New York City, left $2,000, the income to a senior "who has attained distinction in the study tudy in modern languages for a year after graduation."

GROWTH OF THE LIBRARY.

rary received $5,000 from Addin Lewis (Yale College, ven. Prof. J. L. Kingsley gave $500 in 1850 for the d Mrs. William A. Larned gave $1,100 in 1861 for a . In 1867, Dr. Jared Linsley, of New York, gave e to go for the purchase of books in modern languages, dded the fund given by Noah Linsley in 1817.[5] In on. Alphonso Taft gave $2,000. In 1869, Prof. Salis- uable Oriental library of nearly 4,000 volumes, and $6,000 for the purchase of more books.[6]

he whole library had increased to 38,000 in 1860 and to In 1861, President Woolsey gave his Greek library of

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5, 369.

versity, p. 84.

(H. C. Kingsley).

[5] Yale Book, i, 185 (A. Van Name).

[6] He has since given $2,000 for the same.

[7] Dexter, Yale University, p. 59.

INTERIOR OF QUADRANGLE—YALE UNIVERSITY.

DURFEE COLLEGE AND ALUMNI HALL YALE UNIVERSITY.

over 1,000 volumes.[1] In 1858, Daniel C. Gilman was made librarian, after having been assistant for two years. He was succeeded by Addison Van Name, the present librarian, in 1865. In 1867, Franklin B. Dexter was put in charge of the card catalogue, and in 1869 was made assistant librarian (a position he now holds).

NEW BUILDINGS: ALUMNI HALL, FARNAM AND DURFEE COLLEGES.

In the summer of 1852,[2] Alumni Hall was begun and finished the next year. It cost $24,477.85, of which the Linonian and Brothers in Unity societies gave $11,000. It was designed to furnish rooms for examinations (made necessary by the new system of biennials[3]), for alumni meetings, and for those societies. The lower hall is also used for the senior promenade at commencement, and the junior German in midwinter, and was at the time of erection the largest room in America with ceiling unsupported by columns and having rooms occupied above it. It is a castellated Gothic structure of red sandstone, having two cheap-looking wooden battlemented mediæval towers, with tortuous corkscrew staircases.[4]

In 1862, the need of a new dormitory was suggested to Henry Farnam, and, in 1864, he offered $30,000, which he doubled in 1867. The building was completed in 1869, and cost in all $126,634.79.[5] This building was the first conscious movement towards altering the old plan of the campus.

In 1868 the question came up whether it would not be better for the college to move to the suburbs on account of the rise of the value of land in the center. A site of some 50 acres was proposed near the observatory building, but the plan was given up because of the impracticability of equipping the college in the new situation. Therefore, in endeavoring to economize space on the college campus it was determined to make a hollow quadrangle with buildings on all sides and in due time to tear down the "old brick row." Farnam College, built of brick with facings of North River blue stone, was the first building designed for the quadrangle, though Alumni Hall, the Library, and Art School were already erected on the west border of the campus and easily fell in with the plan.

In the spring of 1870 another dormitory given by Bradford M. C. Durfee, and hence bearing his name, was begun on the north side of the campus. It is built of rough-dressed New Jersey sandstone, is four stories high, and measures 181 feet by 40.[6] It has accommodations for forty students and is considered one of the most attractive dormitories.

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[1] Yale Book, I, 186.

[2] Yale Book, I, 488, W. L. Kingsley.

[3] Annuals were substituted in 1868 and semiannuals in 1884.

[4] Scribner, II, 777.

[5] Yale Book, I, 490 (N. Porter).

[6] Yale Book, I, 493 (A. M. Wheeler).

WINCHESTER OBSERVATORY.

mes Hillhouse and her daughters[1] gave Yale 6 acres
). F. Winchester's house, on Prospect street, for an
e telescope in the tower of the Athenæum, previously
y Sheldon Clark in 1830 to replace one lost at sea in
ood service, and through it Halley's comet was seen
nsted and Loomis weeks before any European obser-
wn in America.[2]

atorial telescope made by A. Clark & Sons was put
l Hall. It has a 9-inch aperture and a focal length of 9
ving eyepieces with magnifying powers of from 40 to
tower of the same building is a meridian circle, for-
al Academy and bought of the United States. In
inchester wrote to the corporation offering to buy
ining the site given by Mrs. Hillhouse and apply the
r an observatory for astronomical and physical pur-
d this tract, which cost him some $100,000 to the
inchester Observatory and also gave a flint glass of
r. Mr. Jacob Campbell, of New York, gave four 10-
trustees were to improve and sell the land (so much
l) for the benefit of the observatory. This was the
to endow research, rather than to furnish educational
82 part of the observatory as intended was built and
scope given by Edward M. Reed and a valuable heli-
d to the instruments.[4] The horological bureau is one
ble parts of the observatory. By it standard time[5] is
rtificates as to the running of watches and clocks are
eters are also compared there with standard instru-

PEABODY MUSEUM.

63, George Peabody, the well-known philanthropist,
a museum of natural history, especially geology, zoöl-
gy. A board of trustees was appointed and the cor-
ive land free for the building. Of the gift, $100,000
e for a fire-proof building, $20,000 were to accumulate
100,000 and then to be used for an additional building,
g $30,000 were for the endowment. Three-sevenths of
geology, three-sevenths for zoölogy, and one-seventh
Originally it was intended to place the building on

(H. A. Newton)
and Time Bureau. Scribner's, 21, 483; Harper's, 49, 530.

ersity
the first State to authorize the furnishing of standard time to
881 (Yale in 1881, p. 33).

WINCHESTER OBSERVATORY—YALE UNIVERSITY.

PEABODY MUSEUM—YALE UNIVERSITY.

Chapel street, east of the Art School. In 1874 the site was changed for the present one, corner of High and Elm streets. The present building, designed to be the north wing of the completed structure, was begun in 1874, finished in 1876, and cost, with cases for specimens, $170,000. It is 115 by 100 feet and is built of brick with cut-stone trimmings, having three stories of 18 feet each and a high basement and attic. In the basement are the work rooms and those for the collection of fossil footprints. The first floor has a large lecture room and the mineralogical collection, the finest in the country. The second floor has the collections in geology and palæontology; the third, those in zoölogy and osteology; the fourth, those in archæology.[1] The collections had previously been kept in the upper story of the cabinet. In mineralogy, in addition to the famous Gibbs cabinet previously mentioned, the cabinet of R. D. Perkins, of England, was bought for $1,000 in 1807. In 1843 Baron Lederer, the Austrian consul-general to the United States, sold Yale his cabinet for $3,000. In 1872 Joseph Sampson, of New York, bought for Yale, for $3,000, the collection of pseudomorphs formerly owned by Prof. Blum, of Heidelberg, and the basis of his work on that subject.[2] In geology and palæontology, Prof. Marsh has gotten together a collection, of which Prof. Huxley said, as far back as 1876:

> I can truly and emphatically say that, so far as my knowledge extends, there is nothing in any way comparable, for extent, or for the care with which the remains have been got together, or for their scientific importance, to the series of fossils which Professor Marsh has brought together.

From 1870 to 1875 he led the so-called "Yale Scientific Expeditions," under authorization from the United States, making many important discoveries in the far West.[3] In zoölogy the collections of Prof. A. E. Verrill are very fine,[4] and the collection in archæology, begun by Prof. Marsh in 1866, gained prominence from the time an assistant was appointed for it in 1877.[5]

THE THREE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

Yale has developed in two ways, it has unfolded within itself and has thrown off vigorous shoots in the shape of special departments.[6] The oldest of these, the Medical School, though hampered by lack of funds, did good work. In 1865 a laboratory was established in the Medical School, and in 1877 there was an entire course of chemical instruction there, the laboratory being well fitted up. The faculty has been a self-denying one and the founding of the State hospital is greatly due to their efforts.[7] In 1859 the old building was sold to Mr. Sheffield for the Scientific School, and a year later a new three-story brick college was built on the west side of York street, between Chapel

[1] Yale Book, II, 178 (O. C. Marsh).
[2] Yale Book, II, 183 (E. S. Dana).
[3] Yale Book, II, 187 (George Bird Grinnell).
[4] Yale Book, II, 193 (A. E. Verrill .
[5] Yale Book, II, 195 (C. H. Farnam).
[6] Scribner, XI, 773.
[7] Yale Book, II, 79.

852 the fund was increased to $14,450, and later Dr. of Watertown, gave $5,000. The last of the old fac- it, died in 1864. In 1852 Dr. Worthington was ves's old chair of the theory and practice of medicine. professor of materia medica and therapeutics and Worthington died in 1867 and was succeeded by Dr. who held office till 1873. Dr. Francis Bacon took Dr. 1864 and retired in 1877.

llowing Prof. Beers, Dr. Pliny A. Jewett was profes- 863 and was succeeded by Dr. Stephen G. Hubbard, 0. The chair of anatomy and physiology was filled, Hooker's death, in 1863, by Dr. Leonard J. Sanford, 88. Dr. Bronson, professor of materia medica and g in 1860, was succeeded by Dr. Charles A. Lindsey, 883. In 1867 Dr. Moses C. White was made professor microscopy, and still holds the chair. Prof. Benj. ht chemistry in the Medical School till 1853, when his , to continue at work till his death, in 1885. In 1867 rker was made professor of physiological chemistry

students was small and rather decreased owing to schools.

hool lost its old faculty during President Woolsey's . Taylor died, two years later Prof. Goodrich, and in lso died. A new era began with the appointment in thy Dwight (Yale College, 1849), now president of the istant professor of sacred literature. In 1861 Rev. made professor of homiletics, which place he held . P. Fisher was transferred from the college pastorate lesiastical history, and Henry H. Hadley (Yale Col- ade professor of Hebrew. The latter remained only Hebrew had been taught by Addison Van Name for eorge E. Day was called from Lane Seminary in 1866 of Hebrew, which he now holds in connection with eology. In 1866 also, Rev. Leonard Bacon, retiring storate of the Center Church in New Haven, assumed in theology. During this period President Porter Divinity School. In 1871 Rev. Samuel Harris, D. D., Bowdoin College, was called to the chair of system- which he is the present incumbent. This caused Dr. struction in theology and to lecture instead on church an church history, which he did till his death in 1881, honors.[1] The school, owing to various causes, was flourish till toward the end of Woolsey's adminis- 1866 a movement was made for a new building. This,

[1] Dexter, Yale University.

through the beneficence of the friends of the school, was so successful that the corner stone of the present East Divinity Hall was laid September 22, 1869, and the building was ready in a year.[1] It stands on the corner of College and Elm streets, and contains lecture rooms and rooms for the students. In 1871 Frederick Marquand, of Southport, Conn., well known for his generosity, built a chapel at a cost of some $20,000, to the west of East Divinity and communicating with it. About the same time Henry Trowbridge, of New Haven, gave a fund of $2,500 for a reference library for the department.[2] In 1871 Henry W. Sage, of Brooklyn, founded the Lyman Beecher lectures on preaching, endowing them with $10,000. These lectures are delivered every winter by the most prominent clergymen of the country. For the erection of the new theological buildings,[3] W. E. Dodge, S. F. B. Morse, Aaron Benedict, and Daniel Hand each gave $10,000. In 1868 Samuel Holmes, of Montclair, N. J., gave $25,000 for the endowment of the professorship of Hebrew, provided the new building be put up.[4] Augustus R. Street left $47,855 for the endowment of the professorship of ecclesiastical history, and Governor William A. Buckingham gave $30,000, which endowed the chair of sacred literature. There were other gifts in President Woolsey's time. Prof. Goodrich gave $10,000; Benjamin Hoppin, of Providence, $15,000; Miss Lucretia Deming, of New York, $5,000; W. Burroughs left $10,000; David Smith, of Norwich, gave $5,000; Rev. Charles Nichols, of New Britain, $3,000; W. W. DeForest, of New York, $5,000; Rev. David Root, $14,500, and J. B. Beadle, $5,000.[5] In 1867 the connection of the department with the college was made more clear by the granting the degree of bachelor of divinity to its graduates.

The third professional school, that of Law, flourished for some time under Profs. Clark Bissell and Henry Dutton, who were both appointed in 1847. They were both governors of the State. Governor Bissell retired in 1855 and was succeeded by Thomas B. Osborne, who himself retired in 1865. This left Governor Dutton the sole professor, and with his increasing years the school diminished in numbers and nearly perished, when Governor Dutton's death in 1869 left it without an instructor. Thus, as the second period in the life of the school began with President Woolsey's administration, it also ended with it.[6]

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[1] Five stories above cellar; rooms for about 60 (Yale in 1870, 13).

[2] Yale Book, II, 26 (G. P. Fisher).

[3] Yale Book, I, 196 (H. C. Kingsley). The Broadway Tabernacle, New York, gave $15,900; Clinton Avenue Church, Brooklyn, $3,700; officers of Yale, $5,000, and citizens of New Haven, $16,900 (Yale in 1869, 11).

[4] Yale Book, II, 51 (G. E. Day).

[5] Yale Book, I, 196 (H. C. Kingsley).

[6] Dexter, Yale University, 74.

POST-GRADUATE INSTRUCTION.

Woolsey, as a professor, had graduate students has and Prof. Thacher in 1843 "advocated the establish- of advanced instruction for graduates which should portunities for continuing their studies beyond what hin the limits of the four years' course of the college." r., also had graduate students in chemistry, and his ed a private school in the college laboratory.[1] In 1841 was made professor of Arabic and Sanskrit, without 46 professorships of agricultural chemistry (for which ent was partially promised) and of applied chemistry In August, 1847, a committee of the faculty recom- uate department, and instruction was formally begun 52 the degree of Ph. B. was offered for two years' study, ose who desired to study the more strictly scientific t had a college training that degree was limited to Scientific School in 1860. In the same year the depart- hy and the arts was made complete in its present shape ment of the degree of Ph. D. for B. A.'s with two years' udy. In 1861 this degree was taken by Eugene Schuy- hiton, and Arthur W. Wright. Prof. Salisbury retired wed with $50,000 in 1870 the Sanskrit chair, which olds.

THE SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

President Woolsey's death it was said: "The most tional event of the century in America probably is the r his presidency, of the Sheffield Scientific School of " It sprang from the efforts of two men, Benjamin John P. Norton, to advance the cause of science in es. Mention has already been made of the private 1842 by Prof. Silliman in the laboratory. He fitted y at his own expense, and for some time had no funds friend. Among the students were John P. Norton and Up to this time no provision for the advanced teach- was made anywhere in America, and in this little e germ of the Sheffield Scientific School. The College this school and its members were not catalogued.[4] after leaving the school, went to Europe, to study chem- In 1846 he returned to America, and to Silliman de to secure him to teach those desiring special instruc- ations of chemistry to agriculture, to which he had

[1] Wm. L. Kingsley. Baltimore American, July 3, 1889.
[4] Yale Book, II, 81-83.

paid great attention. Prof. Silliman, sr., with his son, drew up and presented a memorial to the corporation that there should be a new department in the college for physical science,[1] and that plan was widened, according to a suggestion from President Woolsey, so as to include all branches not already taught. This school was to be called the "Department of Philosophy and the Arts."[2] The corporation voted to make two new professorships, one of agricultural chemistry and animal and vegetable physiology, to be filled by John P. Norton, and one of chemistry and kindred sciences applied to the arts, to which Benjamin Silliman, jr., was appointed. A friend offered them $5,000, if $20,000 were raised for this purpose. No instruction was given that year, but the next commencement the corporation voted to organize the department, stipulating that the cost of the school should not come from the existing college funds. The college had no money for the plan and but little sympathy. Prof. Norton came back from Europe, where he had spent the past year, and accepted the chair of Agricultural Chemistry, rejecting the rest of the title.[3] The school was divided into two parts, the school of applied chemistry and the advanced instruction in philosophy, philology, and mathematics (the strictly postgraduate department).[1] The chemical school for several years was allowed the interest of the $5,000 referred to; but, as the $20,000 was never raised, that was taken away later. The school was opened in the old president's house, which President Woolsey did not care to occupy. It was refitted, and the first class organized in the fall of 1847. No supervision of the scholars in the department was attempted by the college authorities, and to this day the scientific students are not obliged to attend chapel. On payment of the tuition fee the students could attend the lectures of Profs. Silliman, sr., and Olmsted in the college proper.[3]

Prof. Silliman, jr., who was later in 1863 one of the fifty original members of the National Academy of Sciences,[2] was appointed instructor in chemistry and toxicology in the medical department of Louisville University, Kentucky, in 1849, and sold out his interest in the school and the laboratory to Prof. Norton. The latter, with all the burden upon him, serving without pay, was not able to endure the exertions required of him, and his health gradually gave way.[3] He was the first professor of agriculture, in any sense, in an American college, and though he was offered $3,000 elsewhere, he would not leave his post.[4] He was a pioneer, and put both heart and means in his work. In 1852, through his endeavors, the first step was taken to give the school a definite position among the departments of the college by the granting the degree of Ph. B., on final examination after a two years' course of study.

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[1] College Book, p. 90.
[2] Yale Book, II, 81-83.
[3] Yale Book, II, 105 (T. R. Lounsbury).
[4] Yale Book, II, 118 (W. H. Brewer).

and useful, he was not long to keep on at his work, tyr to his calling, at his father's house in Farmington, r 5, 1852, aged only 30. He was not a great original that was through force of circumstances, which made r of a school successful from the start. He willed to apparatus, books, and other articles, worth probably the school were kept up. The school was reorganized f. John A. Porter, who had just resigned the professor- in Brown University, to take charge of the laboratory he commencement of 1853 he was made professor of agricultural chemistry, which he held till ill health ign in 1864. He died two years later.[1] He was a son- effield and that fact partly accounts for Mr. Sheffield's rest in the school. At the beginning of 1852, Wil- a graduate of West Point, who had been professor of at Brown University, was chosen to the same place t department was begun that fall with 26 students, ttic of Old Chapel for some years. His students re- degree as the chemical students, but were a distinct talogue of 1854–55 put both as branches of an imagi- ific school, but there was no real connection till both the Sheffield Scientific School.

ool was reorganized, with George J. Brush, one of the f the school, who was then studying in Europe, as pro- urgy.[2] At commencement of that year Prof. J. D. terest in the school, and the next year taught its stu- d continued to do so without pay for some time till him. About this time Prof. Silliman, jr., returned out his work henceforth was in the college proper and l, in both of which places he succeeded his father.

Johnson, who had taken charge of the laboratory the made professor of analytical chemistry, to which agri- ry was added later. He is now the second of the of service. His books made for his classes have sful, being translated into German, Russian, Swedish, ter his appointment Prof. Porter taught only organic 59 the faculty was further increased by the appoint- S. Lyman as professor of industrial mechanics and later exchanged for the chair of astronomy.

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patriot during the rebellion, and originated the "Connecticut book, ii, 118 (W. H. Brewer).

till his death in 1883.

gy was added and he resigned from teaching metallurgy in 1871.

(T. R. Lounsbury), Dexter, Y. U., p. 76. See Fisher's "Yale

NORTH SHEFFIELD HALL—YALE UNIVERSITY.

SOUTH SHEFFIELD HALL—YALE UNIVERSITY.

JOSEPH EARL SHEFFIELD.

That same year the school was put on a firm basis by Mr. Sheffield[1] unexpectedly coming forward, buying the medical college at the head of College street, refitting and enlarging it as the permanent abode of the schools of chemistry and engineering. In 1860 the work was done, and the two schools for the first time came together under one roof. He also gave $50,000 for an endowment fund, the only sum that had been given for that purpose, while all contributions for the department previously had not been over $15,000, and the professors had virtually worked without pay. His gift was divided into three parts; one-half was to go for the chair of analytical and agricultural chemistry, and the other half was to be divided equally between those of metallurgy and engineering. In gratitude for this gift the school was formally named the Sheffield Scientific School at commencement, 1861.[2]

Joseph Earl Sheffield was born at Southport, Conn., June 19, 1793, and died February 16, 1882. His father and grandfather were ship-owners, and in 1808 he himself, after a common-school education, went to New Berne, N. C., as clerk. In 1813 he became partner of a New York house there and soon transferred his business to Mobile, Ala., where he became a large cotton-shipper. In 1835 he returned to the North and settled in New Haven. He was instrumental in the building of the Farmington Canal and the Northampton Railroad, being also concerned in the New York, New Haven and Hartford and other railways. He gave to Trinity Church, New Haven, a parish house, costing $75,000, and made gifts to Trinity College, the Berkeley Divinity School, and the Theological Seminary of the Northwest at Chicago. He was a gentleman of the old school, gracious, gentle, charming, with simplicity of the highest breeding and the kindliness of a noble heart, ever ready to aid the suffering.[3] His health was good till within two years of his death.[4] The aggregate of his benefactions was over $650,000, of which Yale received over half, and since his death the school named for him has obtained much of his estate.

GROWTH OF THE SHEFFIELD SCHOOL.

In 1859 an entrance examination in the chemical course was ordered, but was not put into effect till 1861. This prevented the school becoming a resort for lazy men. The requirements were arithmetic, algebra, geometry, plane trigonometry,[5] English grammar, geography, and the elements of chemistry and physics, which last two were soon given up, as the preparatory schools would not teach them. At the same time, the

[1] He had already given $10,000 (Yale Book, I, 151).
[2] Yale Book, II, 105 (T. R. Lounsbury).
[3] J. E. Sheffield, Am. Jour. of Ed., XXVIII, 321.
[4] Yale Book, II, 114 (W. L. Kingsley).
[5] Sheffield Scientific School, Am. Jour. of Ed., XXVIII, 337.

d a new one, called the general course, were lengthened which the engineering course followed them in 1863, the courses being made the same.[1] Opposition being al course as conflicting unduly with the regular col- modified in 1863, and a year later the name was changed se. It was further reorganized in 1874 and brought e other courses by making geology the leading sub- here is still a feeling among many that it is an easy hrough college without ancient languages.[2] Up to l's gifts were, first, the gift of South Sheffield Hall, d by the addition of an observatory in 1865, mak- 7 by 112 feet[3]; second, an endowment of $130,000 nd of $10,000, later increased to $12,000; third, the natical Library, costing $4,000[4]; fourth, a gift of lier Cabinet, which cost originally $6,000 and was Collier, of St. Louis, in memory of his brother, T. ent in the Scientific School[5]; fifth, gifts for current amounted to $10,000 annually for the last ten years of 20,000 in 1881.[6] In addition to all this, in 1870 he Prospect street, north of the old building, which, from mber of students was becoming too small; erected a cupon known as North Sheffield Hall, and equipped it; over $100,000.[2] By this the class rooms were re-ar- e chemical laboratory, lecture rooms, the library, and Agricultural Experiment Station were accommodated l Hall.[7] North Sheffield Hall, the new building, is d nominally three stories high, though practically tone foundation. The walls are of red brick, relieved e, which give a zebra-like effect; the water tables, r sills are of bluestone. It contains the general the departments of civil and dynamical engineering, nd drawing. Through growth in number the classes alogy, zoölogy, and physiology have recited in Pea- ce 1876.[2]

all of "North Sheff" are held, every winter, the so- Course of twelve lectures, by members of the university the public is admitted on payment of a small fee ($1 d from their foundation they have been successful Prof. W. D. Whitney, about 1860, took the place of

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k, i, 152.
k, ii, 105.
k, ii, 116 (W. H. Brewer).
k, i, 152, ii, 105.
s29, p. 7; Yale Book, i, 196 (H. C. Kingsley).
s, Bureau of Ed., 1881, p. 35.
r was removed in 1882 owing to need for more room
r. of Ed., Feb. 6, 1876, p. 71.

Sheffield instructor in modern languages. His presence gave moral force to the school and prevented the students becoming so narrow as to forget all studies out of their branches. Through his influence at Yale there has never been a conflict between language and science. On July 2, 1862, President Lincoln signed the so-called Morrill bill, by which public lands were appropriated to the several States for the benefit of the agricultural and mechanic arts. The next year Connecticut gave the Sheffield Scientific School, on certain conditions, the interest on the fund from the sale of its share of the land scrip. The fund equalled $135,000,[1] and this, with Sheffield's gifts, put the school on a firm footing. The conditions the State required were, that some Connecticut students should have free tuition.[2]

In 1856, the professors, with the president of the college, were made a governing board. New professors were added from time to time. In 1863, Daniel C. Gilman, formerly librarian, became professor of physical and political geography,[3] which post he resigned to become president of the University of California in 1872. He was very prominent in the management of the school. In 1864, W. H. Brewer was made professor of agriculture, Daniel C. Eaton of botany, and A. E. Verrill of zoölogy. All three of these still hold these chairs. In 1865, Col. Alfred P. Rockwell (Yale College, 1855) was made professor of mining, which place he left to go to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1868. In 1870, Capt. W. P. Trowbridge was made professor of dynamical engineering, which chair was endowed a year later with $28,000 by Mrs. Susan K. Higgin of Liverpool, England.[3] In 1871, O. D. Allen was made professor of metallurgy and assaying, and T. K. Lounsbury professor of English. Both of these still hold their places.

When the State grant came, in 1863, an agricultural course was founded; in 1865 one in mining and metallurgy was added; as was, a year later, one in natural history and geology. In 1870 the courses in dynamic engineering and biology completed the list of coördinate courses. Of the faculty, it can be truly said that from the early days of the school, "with means never abundant and often exceedingly straitened, they have built up a school of science over which no other scientific institution in the country, however richly endowed, ventures to claim superiority."[4]

In 1860 the degree of civil engineer was given for a year's post-graduate study; the degree of dynamic engineer was first given for two year's post-graduate work in 1873.[5] In 1869 an effort was made

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[1] Yale Book, II. 105.

[2] Dexter, Yale University, p. 76.

[3] For endowment of this chair, Samuel L. Selden gave $5,000 and two others $15,000 (Yale in '69, p. 40.)

[4] Yale Book, II. 105 (T. K. Lounsbury).

[5] At the same time the requirements for the degree of civil engineer were raised from one to two years' study (Yale in 1873, p. 6). Dexter, Yale University, p. 76.

manent fund, which brought in $150,000 in less than this sum, Mr. Sheffield gave more than half.
al observer said:

lieve no institution in the country can boast a body of men more with the university spirit, the desire to live by truth and for Scientific School, that we think they can never go wrong, in e doing for the American, as something better and distinct from er or chemist, foremost among their claims to the support and munity.'

THE ART SCHOOL.

Gallery had but few additions for many years. In 1858 emosthenes and Sophocles, already spoken of, came a loan exhibition was held in Alumni Hall for two at-summer. Seven thousand people visited it, and the ked led to a course of art lectures by E. E. Salisbury, ell, Andrew D. White, Prof. Greene, of New York, and Hartford.[2]

rt of the sixties the cause of art education was im- niel Jocelyn on Augustus R. Street, a wealthy citizen o strongly[3] that he offered the corporation "to erect, e, a building on the corner of Chapel and High streets, unds, to be used for a school of the fine arts."[4] His ly to found a museum, but to establish a school for ion in art, for those of both sexes who were desirous ne arts as a profession, and to awaken and cultivate preciation of the arts, among the undergraduates and gave expression to the idea that the "study of art scope of a great university,"[2] and founded the first art erican institution of higher learning and, technically t one connected with a university in the world.[4] The ng was made March 24, 1864; the corner stone laid in he structure was finished just before commencement vived Gothic in style and consists of two wings, 34 by 76 feet, connected by a central building, 44 by 33 feet. Portland and Jersey stone, with yellow Ohio stone arches are of alternate Belleville and Cleveland stone, of the front porch are of Gloucester polished granite, of Cleveland stone carved after natural foliage, with

f Harvard, tried to get Brush and Whitney away in 1869; Nation
(J. F. Weir).
March 9, 1878.
(J. M. Hoppin).
erected under the supervision of the architect of the National
New York. (Connecticut Post, March 9, 1878.)

original designs. In the basement are drawing and modeling rooms; the first story contains studios, classrooms, and libraries; the second, two large galleries, lighted from the roof, and two wide corridors filled with casts.[1] The cost of the building was $175,000; and Mrs. Street, after her husband's death, also endowed the professorship of painting with $50,000. His own gifts to the art school amounted to $317,882.50 in all. In addition, he gave $44,690.47 to the academical department, and $48,865 to the divinity school.[2] Mr. Street died before the completion of the building, but not before he had approved, on July 25, 1865, a scheme for the government of the school, prepared by President Woolsey. It provided for a council of five, of whom the president of Yale College should be the chairman, "for the purpose of taking on them the management of the school of art." This held its first meeting January, 1866. In the summer and autumn of 1867 an exhibition of loaned paintings was held in the new building. The proceeds were over $4,000, and the profits, $700, were used to buy casts.[3] In the spring of 1868 the Jarves collection, illustrative of Italian art from the eleventh to the seventeenth centuries, consisting of some 120 pictures,[4] was mortgaged to the school and placed in the galleries. These paintings were collected by James Jackson Jarves, and are very fine, comprising many panel paintings in tempera. Later they were purchased by the school.

Prof. J. F. Weir was chosen Art director and Professor of Painting in 1869. The professorship was endowed by Mrs. Street, and called, from her father, William Leffingwell. It is required that the occupant of the position belong to the National Academy of Design.[5] Prof. Weir's personal acquaintance with artists and owners of paintings has enabled him to gather fine collections. He returned from Europe in September, 1869, and took the place he has since held. D. Cady Eaton was at the same time made Professor of the History of Art, a position he resigned in 1876. In 1870, and for some years following, there were other loan exhibitions, the proceeds from which went to increase the number of casts. Prof. S. F. B. Morse gave the school Allston's Jeremiah, valued at $7,000, and E. E. Salisbury, Henry Farnam, R. S. Fellowes, and others have made gifts.[6]

GRADUATES UNDER PRESIDENT WOOLSEY.

Thwing,[7] in his book on American colleges, says:

> Nine-tenths of the distinguished graduates from 1819 to 1850 either were the first or among the first scholars of the class to which they belonged. A student who ranked low in college has seldom succeeded in attaining a high position in his profession.

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[1] Yale Book, II, 142 (J. F. Weir).
[2] Yale Book, II, 146 (J. M. Hoppin).
[3] Yale Book, II, 143.
[4] Connecticut Post, March 9, 1878.
[5] Yale Book, II, 142.
[6] Yale Book, II, 144.
[7] Page 126.

s to Yale's honor men, for they have ever done well in
average age of students at entrance, for the first half
; it then slightly decreased for fifty years, and since
ill now the average is considerably over 18 and, conse-
ho graduate are over 22.[1] These graduates have scat-
y than those of any other American college, and "Yale's
ce *in partibus alienorum* (she draws over 60 per cent of
m States not in New England) is due to the fact that
l a great number of Eastern-bred men in the West and
ates. Wherever one travels in the West he finds 10
Harvard man, and in New York the proportion must be

nce of these graduates on the United States the late
rd, of Columbia, said: "Probably no college can justly
ne more through her sons for the enlightenment of the
vancement of religion and morality, and for the encour-
y species of philanthropic spirit."[3] In 1847 graduated
, United States Senator, governor of Missouri, and
didate for Vice-President in 1872. In the same class
Holliday, governor of Virginia; G. G. Barnard and C.
es of the New York supreme court; and E. S. Sanford,
who attained like honors in Connecticut and Minne-
y.

graduated Judge Dwight Foster, of the Massachusetts
nd Nathaniel Shipman, United States district judge for
resident Dwight was in the class of 1849, as was F. M.
the court of appeals of New York. Rev. Dr. L. W.
nnus of 1850, as are Prof. H. A. Newton, Ellis H. Rob-
nd Rev. William Brush, president of Iowa University.
dnated Rev. William K. Douglas, president of Jeffer-
ssouri; John W. Fearn, minister to Roumania, Servia,
bbins Little, librarian of the Astor Library, and Rev.
er. Hon. W. W. Crapo graduated a year later with
C. Gilman, president of California University, and now
is University; Col. William P. Johnston, president of
ty; President Homer B. Sprague, of the University of
Hon. W. M. Stewart, United States Senator; Laurence
of the supreme court of Hawaii, and Charles E. Van-
d like honor in Minnesota. In the class of 1853 are

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iversity, p. 100. The youngest graduate, Charles Chauncey,
of 26 days. Only two graduates have been centenarians. Smith,
n are the only names represented by over 100 men on the Tri-
e age at death of graduates is 59.4 years. (Y. U., pp. 97, 99.)
(E. D. Page.) Fifty-five per cent of Harvard's students were
s from Massachusetts; less than 32 per cent of Yale's from Con-
7, 103.)
al of Education, v. 723.

found R. L. Gibson, United States Senator from Louisiana; Edward C. Billings, United States district judge for Louisiana; Rev. Charlton T. Lewis, Hon. Geo. Shiras, of the United States Supreme Court, Andrew D. White, president of Cornell and minister to Germany and Russia; Edmund C. Stedman, the poet, and Wayne MacVeagh, United States Attorney-General and minister to Turkey. With such a list of honored names, no wonder the class of 1853 vies with that of 1837.

Rev. Carroll Cutler, president of Western Reserve University, and John C. Sanders, M. D., president of the Western Homœopathic College, are alumni of 1854. A year later William De W. Alexander, president of Oahu College, was graduated. Two United States Supreme Court judges, David J. Brewer and Henry B. Brown, graduated in 1856 in the class with Chauncey M. Depew and Prof. L. R. Packard.

John T. Croxton, minister to Bolivia, Rev. Moses Coit Tyler, Rev. Augustus H. Strong, president of Rochester Theological Seminary, and Cyrus G. Northrop, president of the University of Minnesota, were graduated in 1857. A year later the class contained George P. Andrews, judge of the New York supreme court, David G. Brinton, the archæologist, and William N. Armstrong, attorney-general of the Hawaiian Islands. Bishop C. F. Robertson, of Missouri, Eugene Schuyler, and Rev. Joseph H. Twichell were members of the class of 1859. William Walter Phelps, United States minister to Austria and Germany, and Mark P. Knowlton, judge of the Massachusetts supreme court, were graduated a year later. In 1861, Rev. Samuel H. Fisher, president of St. Francis Xavier College, and Edward R. Sill, the poet, graduated. Governor Daniel H. Chamberlain, of South Carolina, John W. Johnson, president of Oregon University, Albert F. Judd, chief judge of Hawaii, and Buchanan Winthrop were in the class of 1862. George W. Atherton, president of Pennsylvania College, Rev. Cortlandt Whitehead, bishop of Pittsburg, I. G. Vann, judge of the New York supreme court, William C. Whitney, late Secretary of the Navy, Prof. William G. Sumner, Rev. Leander T. Chamberlain, Rev. David B. Perry, president of Doane College, H. H. Ingersoll, judge of the Tennessee supreme court, Rev. E. A. Ware and Rev. H. Bumstead, both presidents of Atlanta University, were all members of the famous class of 1863. Rev. H. A. Stimson is of the class of 1865, Rev. E. Y. Hincks of that of 1866, and Henry T. Eddy, president of Rose Polytechnic Institute, and Geo. Peabody Wetmore, formerly governor of Rhode Island, of that of 1867. Le Baron B. Colt, of the Rhode Island supreme court, and Prof. Henry P. Wright, are alumni of 1868. President Austin Scott, of Rutgers, was graduated in 1869; Prof. W. H. Welch, of the Johns Hopkins, in 1870, and Prof. C. R. Lanman, of Harvard, in 1871.

When the call to arms came in 1861, Yale responded nobly to the nation's cry. Seven hundred and fifty-eight Yale men, graduates and undergraduates, served in their country's army, and of these 106 died that the country might be saved. On July 26, 1865, services were

ration of their gallant deeds, and Rev. Horace Bush-
address. Among the most important of Yale's sons
the Union were Gen. J. S. Wadsworth, Gen. Alfred
e of the law school, and Theodore Winthrop (Yale
On the other side some Yale men fought valiantly,
. Richard Taylor and Col. Wm. Preston Johnston.[1]

LIFE AT YALE.

onnection of Yale with the State of Connecticut must
of. As Leonard Bacon said, "More than any other
he pride of the sturdy little State which chartered it,
of a scanty treasury to the relief of its early poverty,
ot ceased to watch over it or to have its share in the
l of it."[2] The chief benefactors to the university have
men; for example, Sheffield, Farnam, Marquand, Street,
st, and Loomis. Furthermore, its religious character
much as its position, and, making its graduates ear-
en, working not for culture only, but also for Christian
laced the country under great obligations to it. The
s moral, so that, as the representative of a neighboring
t a gathering of Christian young men at Yale, "With
g to be good."
m "Yale has refused to take any step which implies
em for liberal education, according to the old stand-
ened its courses and given students election of courses,
r enough advanced to judge for themselves; but in its
both Latin and Greek keep their place, and "the
proper for those who have pursued the regular college
ven to others."[4]
of entrance were steadily raised during President
istration, until it could be said recently that "no other
ed so large a percentage of candidates for admission
many for failing to keep up to its standard of scholar-

a was set on foot at Yale during Woolsey's presi-
cess was so near that its failure is all the more to
he University Quarterly, called for the first number
raduate, sent forth its prospectus on October 27, 1858,
sued in 1860. It was intended "to enlist the active
men in America and, as far as possible, in foreign uni-
discussion of questions and the communication of

Yale Book, II, 25 q., J. S. Johnston.
New Englander (N. S.), IV, 509.
New Englander, XVI, 438, and (N. S.) IV, 509.
New Englander, XXVIII, 301 (H. A. Beers).
Science, 7, 103.

intelligence of common interest to students." It was edited at Yale, and had eighteen colleges connected with it at its start. These were in the United States, Germany, and England, and comprised Berlin, Cambridge, Heidelberg, Columbia, Andover Theological Seminary, Michigan, Wesleyan, Williams, etc. Harvard helped but little, but Amherst sent many contributions.

In 1860 a convention of the editors was held at Worcester, Mass., and twenty-eight colleges were connected with it when the war killed it in 1861. About one-half the entire matter was contributed at Yale.[1]

In 1865 was founded the Yale Potpourri, an annual, much the same as the older Banner, and appearing later in the year. It is owned by the Scroll and Keys Society and is yearly edited by two of its members.

In 1865 a revolution in college journalism began at Yale, in the founding of the Yale Courant by C. C. Chatfield, Lovell Hall, John Buckingham, Richard E. Smyth, and ——— ———, of the class of 1866. It was a weekly, and of a lighter character than the literary monthlies which had been in vogue. It set the fashion, which one college after another followed, and now scarcely any prominent institution of learning is without such a paper. On July 10, 1867, it was changed to the College Courant, an intercollegiate paper, edited by Charles C. Chatfield, and in that guise was very successful for several years.[2] On May 7, 1870, the Yale Courant was issued as a supplement to the College Courant, and that fall as a separate paper. It is now published biweekly, and represents the light literature of Yale, as the "Lit" does the more dignified literature. A college bookstore was started by some theological students in 1851, and was moved in 1867 to the reading room, then on the ground floor of South Middle. A branch post-office was kept there in 1868 and 1869, as there was then no free delivery to the colleges. The store was sold to C. C. Chatfield in 1870.

MUSIC AND GLEE CLUBS.

In 1812 the class of 1813 formed a musical society, called the Beethoven Society;[3] it acted as college choir a few years later and until 1855.[4] It died in 1868, as the Glee Club took its place. In 1856 the Cecilia Society was founded, which soon joined the Beethoven. R. S. Willis (Yale College, 1841) gave great impulse to music during his college course. Under his influence the first public concert was given at commencement, 1840. In 1850 a piano was bought for services in the college chapel; two years later an organ was purchased, and in 1854 Joseph Battell gave $5,000 for the support of a teacher of the science

[1] Four Years at Yale, 425–460. Transient papers during this period were: Meerschaum, 1857; Excuse Paper, 1860; N. B., 185–; Arbiter, 1853; Hornet, 1847; Scalpel, 1856; Index, 1869; Yale Review, 1857–'58.

[2] Four Years at Yale, 460–479.

[3] It was an orchestra at first.

[4] Again from 1857 to 1860.

years later his sister, Mrs. William A. Larned, doubled
er death left $5,000 more. In consequence of this
eckel was made organist and teacher of music in 1854,
holds. Mrs. Larned also endowed a musical library,[1]
ained "all the works of many musicians and the most
all."[2] The first glee club worthy of the name was
of 1863, and its first concert was at the Third Congre-
Guilford, July 24, 1861. Soon the practice of having
club grew up. It is now supplemented by the second
g the Christmas and Easter recesses the glee club
d Southern trips, which are very pleasant to the mem-
joyed by the people of the places visited, and help to
prominently before the public. In addition to this,
ts are given during term time in neighboring cities,
ones in New Haven—in January, at the time of the
, and at commencement. Both of the clubs have a
ed, whose music varies the programme. There have
e orchestras, the last one dying in 1889.

COMMENCEMENT WEEK.

rs ago, biennials were six weeks[3] before commencement
ere finished and the Townsend prize spoken for and
me presentation day, when, according to theory, the
the president the candidates for degrees whom they
honor. Then, as now, came the class poem and ora-
ement of honors by the president, and the parting ode.
ame the presentation dinner, now a thing of the past,
s histories,[4] introduced by the class of 1854, in which
ff on all the class, lemonade is drunk, and long white
nked and given to young lady friends. Since 1867
sat on raised seats on the campus, arranged like an
hen came and still comes the planting of the class Ivy,
y the class of 1852. The walls of the library were first
ey have been covered, Dwight Hall, Battell Chapel,
rial Hall have been used. After singing the Ivy ode
resident and popular professors, the class disperses.
ccurred, in 1872, the Wooden Spoon exhibition, till
stop to it on ground of expensiveness. Originally
s a burlesque on Junior exhibition with its pompous
hes, it retained some of its old characteristics, but

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e, p. 302. [2] Yale Book, II, 479 (G. J. Stoeckel).
is the Monday before commencement. In former times the
nted and senior society men initiated on this day. Harpers,
Years at Yale, pp. 180, 199.
on Monday of commencement week.

had come to be chiefly noted for the giving of a costly wooden spoon[1] of carved rosewood to the most popular man of the class. Since its abolition the evening is occupied by the Senior Promenade in Alumni Hall, when carpets are stretched over the campus walks and couples roam to and fro under the light of Chinese lanterns, or hide themselves away in the rooms of Dwight Hall, or dance on the polished floor of Alumni Hall, forgetful that examinations were held there only a week before.

Then came commencement week after the Senior vacation, which is no more. It has always begun with the Baccalaureate from the president in the college chapel, where sage words of advice are heard by the class, sobered by the thought of going out to battle with the world. This was followed in the evening by the Yale Missionary Society anniversary in Center Church, to which service has succeeded of late years a praise service in the chapel.[2] The town is filled with friends and relatives of the students and with graduates returning to their *alma mater*, and everything is gay. The ceremonies of Monday, class histories and Senior "prom," as they are to-day, have been described. In the olden time, on Monday and Tuesday came the oral entrance examinations, which are now replaced by written ones on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday of the week. These were followed twenty-five years ago by the *concio ad clerum* in the North Church on Tuesday evening and by alumni meeting on Wednesday morning. On Wednesday afternoon came the anniversaries of Linonia and Brothers in Unity, and that evening the *Φ B K* address and the class suppers. Thursday then was the last, the great day of the feast, the commencement day. They were a long suffering people in those days and endured two long sessions of speaking till 1863, when the ceremonies were cut down, so as to occur in the forenoon alone. The festivities then ended with a president's reception at his house.

The date of commencement has constantly moved forward. In 1809 it was the second Wednesday in September; in 1831 it was moved to the third Wednesday in August; 1850 saw a further change to the last Thursday in July. In 1866 it came one week earlier; in 1870, still another, and in 1872 it was made the last Wednesday in June, which it still is. The ceremonies are held, as they have ever been, in Center Church, to which the procession marches as of yore. Within the church the ladies occupy the galleries and the north aisle; the men, the rest of the church. Legend saith this plan was adopted because, when, in former days, they were allowed to sit together, such a whispering arose that at times the speakers scarcely could be heard.[3]

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[1] The custom is said to have come from Cambridge, where a wooden spoon is given to the lowest man on the appointment list. The committee managing the entertainment at Yale were known as *cochleaureate*. (Four Years at Yale, 405, 522.)

[2] Harpers, 27, 785 (1863).

[3] Yale Book, 1, 375.

lay before commencement (Tuesday) has the Alumni
orning, the law school commencement, the medical
y, and the Yale-Harvard baseball game in the after-
Club concert and Senior German in the evening.
of commencement day, comes now the alumni din-
i hall is crowded with graduates, some of whom,
its, eat under a large tent on the campus. After the
eaking, usually fine, and then, in the evening, the
on to the graduates in the art school. The festivi-
nent week end with the Yale-Harvard boat race on
ew London and the jubilation in New Haven which
successful in the race.

CUSTOMS AT YALE.

vely late day, some of the antiquated rules of a cen-
repealed. In the code of 1862, we find such obsolete
student must sign a pledge "particularly, that I will
l intemperance, profanity, gaming, and all indecent,
r, and disrespectful conduct to the faculty, and all
sist their authority." Others are such as these:

l profess or endeavor to propagate a disbelief in the Divine
Scriptures, and shall persist therein, after admonition, he shall
r of the college.
ke an excursion in a sail boat without permission and no per-
to sail beyond the mouth of the harbor.
ywhere in New Haven, act a part in or be present at any the-

y at billiards, cards, or dice, or any other unlawful game, or
ger, or shall keep cards in his chamber.
den to furnish an engraved card of invitation for any college

prevent extravagance among the students. It is but
ese were never enforced at this date, but remained as
times. The junior class gave a ball in August, 1840.
nade was held first in 1851 and was first connected
he junior exhibition. It did not arise to prominence
1863 there has been no break in the succession.
ary, the junior promenade is the great social event of
It is preceded by a glee club concert the Monday
ed by class germans the night after. The "prom"
e armory, the largest hall in the city, and the floor
, 1,500 or 2,000 being there.
sprang up the custom of the two literary societies
nksgiving jubilee, at which freshmen were made sport
ever quite so barbarous at Yale as at some other
"smoking out" and being "taken out" by sopho-
's life was not happy. He has always been made to
and the precious privilege of "sitting on the fence,"

CENTER CHURCH, NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT.

which from time immemorial, till a few years ago, was the dearest privilege of a Yale man, was denied him until he became a sophomore. Latterly they were allowed to sit on the fence if they beat the Harvard freshmen at baseball in the spring, which they strove for so zealously that only one class—that of 1889—ever lost the privilege. Freshmen formerly could not carry canes at all and still can not do it till Washington's Birthday. The date of this emancipation in this respect was celebrated till recently by marching in procession, carrying immense canes, called "bangers." This practice the faculty has lately broken up. A further restriction forbids the wearing of beaver hats till the Washington's Birthday of sophomore year. Rushes at Yale have been rough and tumble affairs, yet have been singularly free from serious accidents. Of course the sophomores buried Euclid in early times, the class of 1863 being the last to keep up the practice. Class pictures have been taken for many years, and class statistics, which were first gathered in 1858 and first issued as a pamphlet in 1870, appear a short time before graduation. As has been stated, the moral tone of Yale is good for a large college. While, of course, there are many "wild fellows" and a very few who are utterly depraved, the great band are earnest, good men, and in nearly every graduating class over one-half are church members.[1]

On March 17, 1854, occurred the great riot. That week a variety troupe was performing at Howard's Athenæum, corner of Church and Chapel streets, and the students and "townies" granted their applause and favor to two different singers. Bad feeling arose and on Friday night about 40 or 50 students who were there were warned by the police that a mob had assembled without the hall awaiting them. They formed in line and, guarded by a few policemen, made their way through the sullen crowd, which followed them. When they reached Trinity church some one started singing "Gaudeamus." The mob rushed upon the rear row of students and one of these, who it was never known, plunged a dirk into the heart of one of the rioters. Pistol shots were fired and the students got safely to South College, where most of their fellow students were assembled. When the mob could not break in the doors they got an old cannon and trained it against the college. The police managed to spike this in the confusion and later gathered forces to drive the rioters away. This was the last great town and gown fight, though there was a firemen's riot on February 9, 1858, in which a man was killed on High street.[2]

GROWTH OF ATHLETICS.

The old annual football game between the freshman and sophomore classes on the green was abolished by the faculty in 1857 because of its roughness.

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[1] Four Years at Yale, 405–522. [2] Four Years at Yale, 500–51[illegible].

ave retained their place as peculiarly the property of
o this day, and no one but a dignified senior would dare
y marbles, roll hoops, or recreate himself with the at-
infans" or "nigger baby." Quoits are the peculiar
ologues. Hare and hounds has been tried by Yale
never gained a permanent foothold. In winter the
of Lake Whitney offers fine skating, and its placid
elightful rowing in summer, when sailing in the harbor

g interest in boating led to the organization of the Yale
ith six boat clubs and a commodore. A year before,
e Winnepesaukee the first of the long series of Yale-
ces. In 1860 a system of having four-year clubs in-
nes was begun, and nearly all the college belonged to
runa, or Nixie, the last named living only four years.
l a boat club called the Undine. In 1863 the system
ain so as to have five clubs, one from each class in the
nd one from the scientific school. The Yale University
now organized, was founded in 1870, and the title of
changed to that of president.
house was built in 1859 and was only an old shed. In
was built for $3,400, which at the time was the best in
e club was incorporated in the same year. The mud
house was built were leased from the Hartford and New
Company, but no rent was ever charged. In 1875 the
se, a fine, commodious building, was erected at the cost
ss races occur every spring and fall, now held on
ut formerly either on New Haven Harbor or at Lake
e 4 miles to the east. These are occasions of great in-
the Undine Boat Club of Yale raced unsuccessfully
Harvard, and that began intercollegiate racing for
al races occurred till 1864, when regular yearly races
which took place between the two colleges at Worces-
870.
first played in 1859, and on September 30, 1865, the
Baseball Club played its first intercollegiate game with
Wesleyan University, and won by the score of 39 to 13.[1]

ESIGNATION OF PRESIDENT WOOLSEY.

dent Woolsey, being 70 years of age, felt himself no
ear the responsibilities and burdens of his office, and
d it. He did not, however, give up activity. He was
the college by giving lectures on international law in
nd by serving on the corporation till 1884. He was

[1] Yale Book, II, p. 355 (S. C. Bushnell).

made one of the American revisers of the New Testament, in which position Dr. Howard Crosby said of him: "His erudition, his judgment, and his clear statement, on the one side, and his courtesy, gentleness, and modesty, on the other, fitted him peculiarly for his position and formed the crowning charm to our coterie." In 1877 he published a notable work, "Political Science; or, the State Theoretically and Practically Considered." He was one of the editors of Johnson's Encyclopedia and was active in many ways. Feeling that a citizen ought to take interest in politics, he accepted a nomination for Presidential elector from the Republican party in 1876 and 1884. Devoted to Yale to the last, he died, after some months of failing health, July, 1889. At his funeral his successor, President Dwight, said of him:

> Dr. Woolsey was so venerable that he impressed every intelligent person who knew him. He had richness of magnetism, much of the poetic mind, large mental grasp, openness to thought, in many lines originality and variety in his ideas and thinking, the ease of perfectly working mechanism in his mental operations, wonderful power of memory, great facility for accurate learning and accurate statement of what he had learned. He was an independent, honest, earnest thinker, subjecting all knowledge and learning to the true test. Those who came into connection with him as students were impressed by his mental characteristics in all these respects, and the nearer they came to his real life the more they were impressed.

SECTION VII.—PRESIDENT NOAH PORTER (1871–1886).

On May 11, 1871, the corporation elected Noah Porter, Clark professor of moral philosophy, as President Woolsey's successor. His recent book on "American Colleges and the American Public" had called the attention of the country to him as an educator, while his monumental work on "The Human Intellect" had placed him high among the learned men of the country. Gentle, mild, and gracious, never saying a harsh word or doing an unkind deed, he has been so beloved by the students that, with one exception only, every one of the fifteen classes graduating under him voted him the most popular professor of their entire course. There is not a Yale man, old or young, who has not a warm place in his heart for this revered instructor, who still continued his instruction in the right principles of human conduct as long as he lived. A member of the class of 1831, after studying theology and serving as a tutor, he was pastor at New Milford and at Springfield, Massachusetts, till called to the Clark professorship in 1846. In 1864 he became an editor of Webster's Dictionary. His work on mental philosophy had its counterpart in 1885, when he issued his "Elements of Moral Science," which has also been widely used.[1] His election was regarded as a pledge that the college would keep on in the lines President Woolsey had marked out. On October 11, 1871, he was inaugurated, and his address was on higher education.

[1] Yale Book, 1, 160.

ie keynote of the subject. He regarded the agitation
a favorable sign, showing that colleges were not—

public attention. The jealous interest on the part of every grad-
ollege should not be behind the foremost, indicates that the point
ll are so sensitive is of no slight importance.

tion should be conversant with the past. An education which
necessarily limited and narrow. We contend that the institu-
ication should be seats of learning in the special sense of the

ould never be so devoted to the generations which are gone as
ation which is now thinking and acting. While it is true that
principles are the same for all generations, it is also true that
va methods of conceiving and applying them, its own difficulties
s true and in refuting what is false, its own forms of scientific
rms of literary expression. There is special need at the present
tudent should sympathize with the present generation, because
proached with being out of sympathy with it, and because the
y needs all the energy and skill which culture and learning can
l correct it. The university should in some sense be the teacher
l as of its own people.

ll wisely forecast and direct the future. The men whom it trains
re, and, to a large extent, have the future of the country in their
s, they should add to the science of the past; as teachers, they
to the highest intellectual capacity and achievement, as well as
lses and perfection. The higher education should aim at intel-
respect remote, rather than immediate, results.

ke our undergraduate departments preparatory for university
. A high tone of practical ethics should be enforced by the
nd the college life. To form the character is a legitimate end of
kind, and the higher its rank, the more important is it that
ous results should be the best conceivable. We hold that the
n daily worship of a college household elevates and invigorates
n though, to some extent, it may be unconscious of this influence.
past history and what are to be the pressing demands of this
the opinion that Yale must and will be forever maintained as a
y.[1]

GROWTH INTO A UNIVERSITY.

1872, the corporation voted—

lege has, by the successive establishment of the various depart-
, attained to the form of a university:

be recognized as comprising the four departments of which a
nly understood to consist, viz: The departments of theology, of
d of philosophy and the arts.

e department of philosophy and the arts be recognized as com-
to the school of the fine arts, the three faculties which severally
rs of the university who are prosecuting their studies as candi-
of PH. D., the degree of A. B., or the degree of PH. B.[2]

lent Porter Yale became a university in fact, although
after his retirement. Cost of instruction and of living
reased since the early days, and in 1871, though the

[1] dress, p. 27.

[2] Yale Book, I. 161.

citizens of New Haven had given $900,000 in the previous twelve years, yet, according to Prof. Dana, Yale needed at once $785,000. That same year there was a deficit of $5,000, and the general fund was sorely taxed to pay the current expenses of the college. As a sample of the increase in expense, it may be mentioned that the expenses of library, treasurer, and catalogues had increased from $450 in 1831 to $9,000 in 1870. Yale was making the money given it go further "than the public had any right to expect,"[1] but it was sorely pressed. The library fund only yielded $1,800, and was very insufficient. It is true many valuable gifts had been given, but these were chiefly for special purposes, and then, as now, rather drew from than added to the general fund, which in all only amounted to $127,000. Endowments in many professorships and increase in the endowment of nearly all were needed. New buildings, such as a chapel and laboratories, were much wanted. It was felt that "to stop short, while others are advancing, is to fall hopelessly in the rear," and no Yale man could endure that. Among the professional schools, the theological one was only fairly well endowed. The law school was in debt to the college, had few students, and no permanent instructors. It had absolutely no funds and a poor library. The medical school in all had property of less than $22,000.[2]

Interest in Yale's needs was aroused by President, then Professor, Timothy Dwight's articles, called "The New Era," which first appeared in the New Englander, and were then bound in book form. The representatives of the various faculties of the university issued a pamphlet called "Needs of the university," Prof. Dana, one showing the relations of the college proper and the scientific school to the university, and in all these ways much interest was aroused.[3]

At the commencement in 1871, the Alumni Association adopted this resolution as a result of these facts:

> That a fund of $500,000 be raised, to be called the Woolsey fund, and to be placed at the disposal of the corporation of Yale College for any purposes connected with the university, and that, in order to carry this resolution into effect a committee of ten be appointed, with power to increase its number to a number not exceeding fifty.

The committee went to work by sending to every alumnus circulars asking for money, and its work was quite successful until the financial crisis, which occurred about that time, hindered its operations. It was not entirely successful, yet raised $168,000, which was a most welcome addition to the funds of the university.[4]

Much of the credit of Yale's financial administration is due to the late treasurer, Mr. Henry C. Kingsley, a son of Prof. J. L. Kingsley. He took the position in 1862 and held it till his death in December,

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[1] Nation, 12, 379 (1871).

[2] "Yale College; Needs of the university suggested by the faculties to the corporation, the graduates, and the benefactors and friends of the institution, 1871."

[3] The Academic College and the Scientific College at New Haven, in their Relations to the University, 1870.

[4] Dexter, Yale University, p. 81.

h his wise, prudent, and sagacious management the col-
me near to making both ends meet, even in the worst
fidence in him was an important factor in the increase of
und, from about $700,000, when he took office, to over
n he died.[1]

INCREASE IN ENDOWMENTS.

. Samuel Miller, of New Haven, founded the Douglass
h a gift of $10,000. It is in memory of her brothers.
nd Douglass (Yale College, 1822) and Geo. H. Douglass
1828). It may be held by a recent graduate for not over
The same year $1,000 was left Yale by H. W. Scott (Yale
from which are given the Scott prizes of $30 in books
in French and German to members of the junior and
respectively.[2] In 1874, $25,000 were left by Harry W.
ollege, 1866), for graduate scholarships.[4]
. William A. Larned gave $15,000 to furnish three scholar-
uates; she also endowed the chair of American history
gave $5,000 for instruction in music, and $5,000 for pur-
in English literature for the library.[5]
. Theodosia D. Wheeler gave $10,000 for a fellowship to
graduate. It was given in memory of Yale's sons who
r the Union, and especially of William Wheeler (Yale
. The holder is generally one who has shown special
Greek. About the same time a fund of $3,000 was estab-
lowship bearing Silliman's name. It is held by a gradu-
tained distinction in natural science.
T. Dwight Porter (Yale College, 1816) gave real estate
City, which, with additional gifts a year or two later,
115,000,[6] partly unproductive and encumbered with an
daughter. The main part of the income is used for pro-
s.
. C. L. Ives left $10,000 for beneficiary education at Yale.
, estimated at $45,000, was made by Mr. and Mrs. Fred-
s. This is called the Thacher fund, and is for a new
of Latin.[7]
niel Coit Tyler, M. D. (Yale College, 1825,), left $100,000
ity funds, subject to two annuities. Hon. James Knox
1830) left a contingent bequest of $30,000, which was

University, p. 94.
. 3.
p. 5.
[4] Yale in 1874, p. 5.
[5] Yale in 1877, p. 4.
fts and some from his brother it amounted to $212,500 (Yale in 1880,
ale University, p. 81. Yale in 1878, p. 6.
. 6.
. 6.

KENT AND SLOANE LABORATORIES—YALE UNIVERSITY.

BATTELL CHAPEL—YALE UNIVERSITY.

received the same year and added to the university funds. Also, in 1880,[1] Lucius Hotchkiss left $10,000 for beneficiary education. In 1884 Dr. S. Wells Williams left $5,000 for the endowment of the professorship of Chinese, or for education of Chinese youth at Yale.[2]

In 1885, Augustus Silliman left $75,000 for the foundation of a course of lectures to be delivered to the whole university. The same year a legacy of $15,000 came to Yale from Pelatiah Perit (Yale College, 1802), and was used for endowing the professorship of political economy. About the same amount came about the same time from another legacy from William B. Bibbins[3] (Yale College, 1845).

Henry T. Morgan, of New York, left a fund which in 1886 amounted to about $85,000, and was then applied to beneficiary scholarships.[4]

BATTELL CHAPEL, SLOANE AND KENT LABORATORIES, AND LAWRANCE HALL.

In 1864, Joseph Battell gave $30,000 for a college chapel. To this $10,000 was added by W. E. Dodge and $5,000 more by others. Work was begun in 1874, and then Mr. Battell died, leaving $50,000 more, which enabled the corporation to enlarge the plan. Mr. Battell was a son of a Connecticut merchant. Himself a graduate of Middlebury College, he was in his tastes and habits a scholar, although occupied with a large and manifold business. Battell Chapel is situated between Farnam and Durfee, at the northeast corner of the campus. It was opened June 18, 1876, with a sermon by President Porter.[5] It is built in the form of a cross, and will seat 1,150. The material is rough brown New Jersey limestone. On the outer wall, on Elm street, are two escutcheons with the arms of the State and college.[6] The chapel is arranged so that the different classes sit together on the ground floor, while the galleries are occupied by the faculty's families and by strangers. Of late years the great increase of students has made it necessary to put many of them in the galleries, and the chapel seems likely to become soon too small for the needs of Yale. It has many beautiful memorial stained glass windows in honor of men long connected with the college as professors or presidents.[7]

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[1] Yale in 1880, p. 5. [2] Yale in 1884, p. 11. [3] Yale in 1885, p. 5.

[4] Dexter, Yale University, p. 84. Yale in 1886, p. 10.

[5] Fifteen years in Chapel, 58 (N. Porter).

[6] Scribner, II, 777.

[7] Connecticut window on north side; middle window of apse, presidents down to Day; other windows of east side to Berkeley and Edwards. In west side, Woolsey window. In nave, windows to Silliman, Kingsley, Goodrich, Taylor, Fitch, Olmsted, Herrick, Larned, Stanley, Hadley, and Williams. Brass tablet to Battell and Mrs. Larned. Tablet to Cuyler and window to W. L. Andrews, two young graduates. (Yale Book, I, 287. W. L. Kingsley.)

An addition to it to accommodate the increasing numbers of students is now (1883) in progress. It is to be hoped it will not injure the beautiful proportions of the building.

gave an organ for the chapel, which is worked by a
. It is so fine that the organist writes, "A better house
n for holy music could not be built." Its range is 4¾
three keyboards and a pedal board of 2½ octaves, 56
pipes.[1]

of Battell is the college clock, and a set of chimes which
rter hour.

sewers and drains of the campus were reconstructed,
,000, not because of complaint of unhealthfulness, but
t danger.[2]

partment which had been previously much cramped
ovided for by the gift of the Sloane physical laboratory,
ry street. It is the gift of Henry T. Sloane (Yale Col-
Thomas C. Sloane (Yale College, 1868), and is a memo-
her.[3]

Albert E. Kent (Yale College, 1853) offered to build a
atory to give facilities for that important department,
erly been housed in the most unsuitable fashion. He
r this building, which was built of stone in 1887, and
rner of Library and High streets,[4] next to the physical

onze statute of Prof. Silliman, from a design by Prof.
ed on the campus.

number of undergraduates made the old dormitories
hold them, and to supply the want partially, Mr. and
. Lawrance, of New York, offered $50,000 for such a
called Lawrance College, as a memorial of their son,[5]
(Yale College, 1884). This was built so as to be occu-
ber, 1887. It is built of brick, and adjoins Farnam on
change of doubtful advantage was adopted in making
tories high, instead of four, as all the other dormitories
ilt so as to be fireproof as far as possible, and accom-
students.[6]

DWIGHT HALL.

Elbert B. Monroe offered to erect, free of expense to the
ing primarily for the use of the Young Men's Christian
d for the general religious uses of the students of the
nagement and control of the building, when erected, to
corporation.[5] The proviso was added that the building

79. (G. J. Stoeckel.)
as also renovated. Yale in 1882, p. 5.
iversity, p. 85. Yale in 1882, p. 4.
iversity, p. 95. Yale in 1886, p. 4.
11.
. 5–7.

LAWRENCE HALL AND CAMPUS ELMS—YALE UNIVERSITY.

DWIGHT HALL—YALE UNIVERSITY.

should be on the campus. A site was given south of Alumni Hall, and on it Dwight Hall has been erected. It takes its name from the elder President Dwight, to whom and to Frederick Marquand, who conceived the idea of the building, and as the executor of whose estate Mr. Monroe gave it, are tablets erected in the main hall. It was dedicated in the fall of 1886, and has answered its purpose superbly, furnishing a social, religious center to the university. It is built of stone, and contains on the first floor four class prayer-meeting rooms, and a large central hall, which is also used as a reading room. On the second floor there are a large hall holding some six hundred people and furnished with a fine small pipe-organ, a library of religious works, a small Bible-class room, and rooms for the general secretary of the college Y. M. C. A. Two other students have rooms on the third floor, and assist in the management of the building. It has been most beneficial to the religious life of Yale, giving it a permanent home, over whose portals is inscribed the motto, "καθηγητής ὑμῶν ἐστιν εἷς ὁ χριστός."

THE LIBRARY.

During President Porter's time this grew greatly. In 1871 the library of Robert von Mohl, professor at Heidelberg and Tübingen, was bought for the college at cost of $3,600, of which $1,400 was given by W. W. Phelps.[1] It contained 6,000 volumes, and is rich in politics and international law.[2] In 1877 a gift of $5,000 was received from Mrs. Irene Battell Larned, and other gifts made the fund increase 50 per cent, from $32,000 in 1871 to $55,000 in 1886. After 1874 the library had given to it the income of $50,000 left by John Jay Phelps, of New York City, to be distributed by his son, W. W. Phelps, for the benefit of Yale. Eighteen hundred and seventy-one and 1872 saw the societies' libraries consolidated, put in the north wing of the library, and kept up since at college expense.[3] Of smaller gifts we notice $2,500 from Charles H. Board, of Edenville, N. Y., for political and social science; $1,700 from the class of 1872; $1,000 from Thomas Hooker, of New Haven, and a bequest from Henry W. Scott, of Southbury, to be available when it should reach $5,000. Charles A. Bristed, in 1871, gave $100 for classical philology; Hon. Henry Farnam gave the Latin and Greek Fathers, in 387 volumes, and $1,000 in 1873. G. P. Wetmore, of Newport, R. I., gave $700. Prof. Marsh and Frederick W. Stevens, of New York, gave $500 each for Chinese and Japanese literature.[4] The library increased to 120,000 in 1880, and 160,000 in 1887. George Brinley, of Hartford, the collector of Americana, left at his death, in 1879, the privilege of purchasing at the sale of his books[5] to the sum of $10,000. In 1883 the late Joseph J. Cooke, of Providence, R. I., made a similar grant to the

[1] Yale Book, 1, 186 (A. Van Name).
[2] Nation, 12, 126.
[3] Dexter, Yale University, p. 87.
[4] Yale Book, 1, 187 (A. Van Name).
[5] Yale in 1879, p. 18.

00.[1] One thousand one hundred Chinese books from Dr. ams's library were given after his death by his son, and Dickinson (Yale College, 1826) left the college some 1,600 5, Joshua Coit (Yale College, 1819) left $2,500 for the arence Campbell (Yale College, 1872) left $3,000 for it.[2] nemory of Loring W. Andrews, a student at Yale, his ibrary of text-books and manuals of reference for the use small means in the college proper.[3] A collection of coins ession of Yale for some time, but was small, till increased . H. Johns, of Canandaigua, N. Y.; Thomas Wyatt, Miss reet, Henry Champion, Dr. Andrew F. Pratt (Yale Col- l C. Wyllys Betts. It has been hidden away in some t will have a suitable place for exhibition in the Chitten- It was catalogued and arranged by Dr. Jonathan College, 1863).

CURRICULUM.

ced great changes and reached its present condition in It has given the Yale graduates the reputation of being rough."[5] In 1878, a writer states:

s and graduates regard the instruction in international law and litical economy, and in several branches of science, as of peculiar

faculty was authorized to put French or German in the ination, but did not do so till ten years later. In 1876, tem was extended so as to cover the afternoon exercises enior years.[7] From 1870, the classics have been optional ning of junior year. In 1869, an important change was ling the lower classes according to standing and not e alphabet. This plan has worked very successfully. present plan of electives was put into operation and as well as any that could have been devised. Under ages, mathematics, and either French or German are pose most of the work of the first two years.[8] In junior t is allowed to select the subjects of ten of the fifteen of recitations, the rest being in logic, psychology, and s. In senior year, thirteen hours are elective, and the s in mental and moral philosophy. A system of special devised by which a student who, taking six hours a week

[1] Thwing, American Colleges, pp. 23-25.
26. [6] Thwing, ante.
5. [7] Yale in 1870, p. 8.
25, 258; Yale in 1874, p. 19.
264 Sophomores are to be allowed to choose five out of the following n, Greek, Mathematics, English, German, and Physics.

in a given class of subjects for one or both of the last two years, doing creditable work and presenting an acceptable thesis obtains special mention. The marking and rank of students, further than what can be judged from class-room division, are unknown till Christmas of junior year. After that the junior appointments appear, giving the relative standing of all whose marks are above a certain standard and usually including two-thirds of the class. According to immemorial custom, these are divided into classes ranking as follows: Philosophical orations, high orations, orations, dissertations, first disputes, second disputes, first and second colloquies. A similar list is published just before graduation, based on the marks for the whole course.

In 1876, an experiment was tried of having entrance examinations out of New Haven; then there was an examination at Chicago. This proved successful; in 1880, San Francisco and Cincinnati were added; in 1882, Andover; and since then several others, so that an attempt to enter college is rendered as convenient as possible. Of late years it is allowed to divide the entrance examinations and take half in each of two successive years.

PROFESSORS.

In 1871, J. W. Gibbs was made professor of mathematical physics, and A. W. Wright of chemistry and molecular physics. In 1872, Franklin Carter was made professor of German, which place he resigned in 1881 to become president of Williams College. In 1872, also, W. G. Sumner was called to the chair of political and social science; the new professorship of American history was filled by F. B. Dexter, which place he held till 1888, when George B. Adams succeeded him; Tracy Peck came from Cornell to become professor of Latin in 1880. The long vacant Kent professorship of law was filled in 1881 by Hon. E. J. Phelps, late minister to England. The same year, Rev. G. T. Ladd became professor of mental philosophy. In 1871, E. L. Richards; in 1881, A. W. Phillips, and in 1882 William Beebe were made assistant professors of mathematics. H. A. Beers was made professor of English in 1874, and E. S. Dana assistant professor of natural philosophy in 1879. That same year F. D. Allen was called to fill the place of Hadley, that "profound and versatile scholar" who introduced Roman law to Americans. Prof. Allen stayed only a year and T. D. Seymour, the Homeric scholar, succeeded him. In 1879, W. I. Knapp took the chair of modern languages.[1] In 1877, Rev. W. M. Barbour, formerly of Bangor Theological Seminary, became professor of divinity, which post he resigned in 1887 to become principal of the Congregational College of McGill University.[2] The new chemical laboratory necessitated a separate teacher of chemistry, and F. A. Gooch was appointed in 1886.

[1] He left to accept a chair in Chicago University in the fall of 1892.

[2] Dexter, Yale University, p. 85.

research, Prof. Seymour wrote, in 1882:

nd Peck assign special investigation to their graduate students, undergraduates so ready, as they would desire, for such work. ent is ready to undertake an original investigation. He is always ss for the work) encouraged and aided.[1]

POST-GRADUATE WORK.

mentioned, in President Porter's time, the number of rships was increased from seven to seventeen. A pro- ase of students followed. In 1874, the old practice of er of arts in course was changed for a system of giv- n examination and after one year's post-graduate study, ndidate be a graduate of two years' standing. This ery successful.

ose of President Porter's time, A. T. Hadley was made litical science in the university and Dr. William R. or of Semitic languages.[2] Of especial excellence for are the courses in mental philosophy and in "political tory," the last of which is frequently known as the journalism" and is partly responsible for the fact that raduates follow that profession than those of any other

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

ourse in the medical school was made one of three years xaminations. Development was made in chemistry, ology, and pathology, though the number of students and rather decreased. In 1873, Dr. David P. Smith, of ss., was made professor of surgery. He died in 1880, ry and instruments to the school, and provision for the ment of a professorship. His death was a great loss to Lucian S. Wilcox, of Hartford, was made professor of ctice of medicine in 1877 and died four years later. hott was professor of diseases of the eye and ear from hen he took the chair of surgery.

. A. Lindley took Dr. Smith's chair.[4] In 1880, Dr. F. came professor of obstetrics and Dr. James K. Thacher ysiology in 1879. Dr. Sidney I. Smith was made pro- rative anatomy in 1875. In 1883, Dr. Thomas H. Rus- ofessor of materia medica and therapeutics; in 1885, Smith professor of chemistry; 1886, Dr. James Camp- obstetrics, and in 1888, Dr. S. W. Williston professor

n Ed. Rept., 1882-83, p. CXLIV.
rganize Chicago University in 1891.
ty of Elms, p. 56 (Ducrow).
sferred from the chair of materia medica and therapeutics.
e University, p. 92.

In 1889, the Connecticut Pharmaceutical Society suggested that a school of pharmacy should be established in connection with the medical school. Dr. John De Forest, of Watertown, Conn., a generous benefactor of the college, in 1878 gave $5,000 to the medical school.

In 1885, the Connecticut[1] Medical Society gave up its share in the government of the school, which now is under the entire control of the university. Its crying need is an endowment of half a million to put on a permanent basis this school, the first in the country which advocated higher professional education.[2] In 1878, Mrs. Mary M. Keese left $2,000 in memory of her son, Hobart Keese, M. D., the income of which is to be used for a prize for the best thesis from the graduating class.

The growth[3] of the divinity school was continuous and uninterrupted. In 1873, the increased number of students demanded increased accommodations, and West Divinity Hall was built, a counterpart of East Divinity, but holding more students, as it has no lecture rooms. It cost $160,000, of which one-half was given by that generous benefactor, Frederick Marquand. He also gave $10,000 more for various purposes of the department. Among other generous contributors to the new building were Hon. Charles Benedict, of Waterbury, $10,000, and Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, Eli Curtiss, esq., Hon. James E. English, John De Forest, M. D., Hon. Henry Farnam, and Wells Southworth, who each gave $5,000.[4]

Mrs. Mary A. Goodman, a colored woman of New Haven, left her whole savings, amounting to $3,069, for the aid of colored young men preparing for the ministry at Yale divinity school.[5]

When West Divinity Hall was built, a place was reserved in it for the valuable library of music and musical works belonging to Dr. Lowell Mason and presented by his family.[6] In some respects it is the most complete library of the sort in America, containing nearly 10,000 publications. One-half of the works are on sacred music.[7]

In 1876, a graduate fellowship was founded, called the Hooker Fellowship, in memory of Mrs. Aurelia D. Hooker, of New Haven. It yields $700 and is tenable for two years. In 1879, Asa Otis, of New London, left $25,000 to the school, and soon after Henry Winkley, of Philadelphia, gave $50,000 to establish a professorship of biblical theology, to which chair Prof. John E. Russell was called in 1885, and held it till

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[1] In 1879 the charter was amended, doing away with free county students. (Yale in 1879.)

[2] Yale in 1885, p. 16.

[3] An article on "Law of Mortality" among former members of the Yale divinity school in 1873, by H. A. Newton (New Englander 32, 303), shows that the average age at graduation was from 24 to 31, and that the mortality, compared with other classes of men, was greater till the age of 32, equal till 41, and then less.

[4] Yale in 1874, p. 8.

[5] Yale Book, II, 53 (G. E. Day).

[6] Yale Book, II, 26 (G. P. Fisher).

[7] Yale Book, II, 479 (G. J. Stoeckel).

9, when he left to become a professor at Williams Col-
fourth year or graduate class was begun, consisting
class has proved very successful, pursuing work in

acon Memorial Library was built, to contain the refer-
en by Mr. Henry Trowbridge, at a cost of $10,000.
nects Marquand chapel with West Divinity and fronts

ditional sum of $150,000 was added to the general fund
nt, of which the estate of Frederick Marquand gave
. Lewis G. Brastow was called as professor of homi-
storal charge, instruction in which had been given by
nce Prof. Hoppin's resignation in 1879.[2] In 1886, Rev.
ns, D. D., was chosen professor of New Testament lit-
of. Harper assumed the instruction in Hebrew.[3] The
n students from the most widely separated parts of the
s had a share incalculably great in the evangelization of
r West is covered with "home missionaries from Yale."
ol took a new lease of life under President Porter.
Dutton's death, in 1869, three of the New Haven bar—
binson, Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin, and Johnson T. Platt,
n charge of the school temporarily, and the arrangement
nent, in 1872, by making them full professors, on account
ess they had already obtained. Hon. Francis Wayland
rofessor in 1872. They thoroughly reorganized the
nade it worthy of Yale. In 1872, the school came into
cious apartments on the third floor of the north wing
ty court-house, and, in a short time,[4] $25,000 were sub-
ls for the library, and $10,000 for a permanent fund for
ere given by Gov. English. The rooms in the court-
n the school, on condition that the library be open to
t lawyers have the right to take books to the courts.[5]
e course of two years, with written examinations, was
, and entrance examinations were required since 1875.
public commencement was held, and a course of annual
y the Kent Club, an organization of the students. In
al experiment in America in advanced education for
t Yale.[6] A course of two years was established, and
L. given after one year, and that of D. C. L. after two.
Roman law until his death, and, in 1876, Theodore S.

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[1] versity, p. 73.
[2] 11.
[3] 19.
[4] versity, p. 91.
[5] at 50th anniversary. The library has now full sets of Irish,
an reports.
[6] F. Wayland's.

COURT-HOUSE AND CITY HALL, YALE LAW SCHOOL.

EAST DIVINITY, MARQUAND CHAPEL, BACON LIBRARY, AND WEST DIVINITY—YALE UNIVERSITY.

Woolsey, a son of the president, took his place in teaching international law.[1] In 1881, W. K. Townsend, esq., was made professor of pleading. In 1880, Hon. Lafayette S. Foster left $60,000 to the school, subject to a life interest, and endowed the professorship of common law, this being the first endowed professorship.

In 1871, Hon. Marshall Jewell established a prize of $50 for the member of the graduating class receiving the highest marks at final examination; a corresponding prize for juniors was established in 1875 by Frederic H. Betts. In 1874, Hon. James M. Townsend established a prize of $100 for the senior writing and pronouncing the best oration or thesis at graduation, and in 1885 Hon. Origen S. Seymour established a prize of $60 for the student making most improvement during the course.

SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

In 1870, President Eliot, of Harvard, said the Sheffield Scientific School was "at once an epitome of the past history of scientific institutions and a prophecy of the future."[2] President Porter said of it about the same time:

> The Sheffield Scientific School contemplates a definite and orderly scientific and literary training for the first year in common studies, and for two years following, in special departments of study and research. Its friends claim that in connection with the classical department it enables Yale College successfully to accomplish the ends proposed by the elective system, without its disadvantages. It has done not a little for higher education. It has attracted a large number of the graduates of the college and put them upon a post-graduate course, giving them the advantages of both the classical and scientific courses and making a reality of thorough university studies. It has certainly done its share as a constituent of the so-called department of philosophy and the arts.[3]

On May 5, 1872, after Prof. Gilman left, Prof. Brush was chosen executive officer of the school, from the "universal feeling among his associates that whatever success it had gained was due to him more than to any other single agency."[4] This post he still holds. In 1873, Prof. J. E. Clark was called to the chair of mathematics. Two years later, W. G. Mixter became professor of chemistry, and J. I. Smith of comparative anatomy. In 1872, Gen. Francis A. Walker became professor of political economy and history. He resigned in 1880 to take the presidency of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology at Boston, and was succeeded by H. W. Farnam. In 1877, A. J. Dubois was made professor of dynamical engineering, and in 1884 was transferred to the chair of civil engineering, Charles B. Richards succeeding him in his former chair. In 1882, R. H. Chittenden became professor of physiological chemistry, and in 1883 Prof. William A. Norton, who had been so long connected with "S h ," died. C. H. Hastings was made professor of physics in 1884.

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[1] Dexter, Yale University, p. 91.
[2] Rept. Com. Ed., 1870, p. 98.
[3] Am. Coll. and Am. Pub., p. 261.
[4] Yale Book II, 105 (T. R. Lounsbury).

heffield died, leaving the school one-seventh of his reversion of the whole of his real estate adjoining the piration of the lives of his wife and son. This prop- into possession of the school on the death of Mrs. greement made with her son, Mr. G. St. J. Sheffield. Mr. Sheffield's gifts to the school which bears his t to over $700,000.

THE ART SCHOOL.

1, Mrs. A. R. Street gave $25,000 to endow a profes- g, and J. H. Niemyer, the present incumbent, was . In 1879, Rev. J. M. Hoppin was transferred from to the art school, and is now professor of the history R. Honey is the instructor in geometry and perspec- n P. C. Foster (Yale College, 1869) the instructor in 3 casts of the Ghiberti Gates at Florence were given school, and other additions have been made from time Mrs. Street died; her gifts and those of her husband to $411,437.97, of which $317,882.50 went to the art s been constant endeavor to make the school, as the factor in the undergraduate course and to cultivate of all the students.[3] To the special student of art, it a wide field of usefulness in connection with the omotion of art, and to offer every facility to the stu- ray of criticism and technical discipline."[4]

come of $200, as a prize, was given in memory of ker.

STUDENT LIFE.[5]

rk, Yale men are not slothful. The old Missionary n 1817, is long since dead; but an active Y. M. C. A. 1819. In 1853, the proportion of church members to was as 1 is to 4, and in 1876 it had increased so to be 69, the Episcopalian students organized the Berkeley re which an annual sermon is preached.[7] Mission taught by students. Bethany Mission, founded in eet, and is entirely under student management. The teachers for the North Church mission and for the ongregational Sunday school (colored). A boys' club

J. F. Weir).

It is rather a pity that the name Street was not incorporated

ersity, p. 90.

(J. F. Weir).

le University," A. E. Jenks, Lippincott, 40, 290.

, p. 62.

and the Oxford Club of Methodists were organized in 1889.

COLLEGE STREET—YALE UNIVERSITY.

is maintained by the Freshman class, having been established by the class of 1892, and the Grand Street mission was opened in 1888, which has done great good among the poor of that section of New Haven. Class prayer meetings are held Sunday noons and Wednesday evenings, and university meetings on Sunday evenings, all in Dwight Hall.

The Yale Record began to be published as a weekly in the fall of 1872, and in 1876 became a biweekly, together with the Courant.[1] In 1886 it changed its character from a literary periodical to an illustrated one of a lighter type, succeeding the short-lived Quip, published in 1885. It is quite popular in its new form, and is similar to "Life." The Yale News, a daily paper, was begun by anonymous students in 1878. It is now one of the most prosperous, successful, and popular of the college papers.

On February 14, 1885, through the efforts of B. K. Heaton, was founded the Yale Coöperative Society. It has a store in South Middle, and furnishes members with a free telephone, sells goods at almost wholesale prices, attends to checking baggage, hiring carriages, and delivery of college papers. Connected with the society are associated tradesmen, who promise to give a certain discount on goods sold to members, gaining increased trade in return. These give bond for $100 to actually give the discount agreed upon. In the first year its student members saved on the average $10.89, and the business of the store yearly is from $10,000 to $15,000. The price of the ticket is $2 per year, and the "Coöp." is a great success.[2]

The society system did not change much in President Porter's time. In 1884 *Φ B K* was revived and Wolfshead organized. To fill the place of the abolished sophomore societies *'H. Βουλη* was organized in 1875 and *H. Φ.* in 1879. Both are prosperous, and, having been maintained *sub rosa* for years, were recognized by the faculty in 1888. *B X* was a short-lived rival about 1883. *Λ Δ Φ* was revived as a four years' society, the first of its kind at Yale, on January 27, 1888. It has since been prosperous and successful. The general convention of the fraternity met with the Yale Chapter in 1889. Its revival was followed by the revival of *Φ Γ Δ* as a university society, with a chapter house on Wooster square,[3] and the founding of *Z Ψ* as a junior society. *Σ N* was also established as a university society in 1889 and died in 1892. The Waite Chapter of *Φ Δ ϕ* was established in the Yale law school in 1886. It is sometimes known as Corby Court.

The secret-society system of "Sheff." was started by the founding of a local society, Berzelius, in 1848. This has a secret hall on Prospect street, and stands high in the estimation of the students. Probably the finest chapter house in the United States was erected on Hillhouse avenue in 1888, by *Σ. Δ. X.*, another "Sheff." local fraternity and the

[1] Yale Book, I, 359 (Franklin Carter).

[2] Coöperation in New England (Bemis). J. H. Univ. Studies, vol. vi.

[3] For a year or two, about 1875, it was in existence in the Sheffield scientific school.

It is familiarly known as "Book and Snake," from the n, or as "The Cloister," and was founded in 1863. Δ Ψ pany," as it is familiarly known from the shape of its chapter hall at the corner of College and Wall streets, s founded at Yale in 1869. Θ Ξ has had a chapter in chool since 1865, X Φ since 1878, Θ Δ X since 1878, 1889. The number of students in the university in-2 in 1865 to 1,037 in 1880.

ATHLETICS.[1]

o 1876 lasted the Intercollegiate Association of Boat its races at first on the Connecticut River and then at le was a member and won in 1873, but was badly beaten s. In 1876, on account of the unwieldly size of the rteen clubs rowed in 1875), Yale left it and inaugurated races with Harvard, which, since 1878, have been held Yale has won ten of these races and Harvard seven, one of the most exciting events of the college year. At freshmen races with Harvard and the University of have been rowed. Yale has rowed the University of in the week preceding the Harvard race, for three years

r, 1872, football was introduced into Yale by Rev. D. and the first games were played with twenty on a side. the Football Association was organized with Princeton, Rutgers. In football Yale has attained a high rank and beaten, save by Princeton. In baseball she has been successful. From 1879, when the Intercollegiate Base-n was formed, until it was dissolved in 1891, she lost ip but once, and that to Harvard in 1885.

872, occurred the first field games of the Yale Athletic Hamilton Park.[2] Yale joined the Intercollegiate Ath-n early, and, though for a long time she did not win sports equal to those in other branches of athletics, she ionship in them in 1890.

played for some years with credit, but given up in 1885 interest and a desire not to dissipate energy over too

y popular in Yale and the University has produced some held in 1890 the championship in singles and second es. The intercollegiate lawn tennis contests are held grounds of the New Haven Lawn Club. In the spring athletic field was purchased on the west bank of West

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[1] Athletics at Yale, R. M. Hurd in Outing, XII, 401.
[2] Yale Book, II, 151 (F. W. Brown.)

River, on Derby avenue, about a mile from the campus. It lies on a bluff and comprises about 30 acres of land. It is laid out into two base-ball diamonds, a football field, a running track, and tennis courts, and contains ample space for other sports. There is a fine grand stand on the grounds and a house for dressing, etc. Since the fall of 1884 the athletic contests of Yale have been held there.[1]

EXPENSE OF COURSE AT YALE.

In 1876 it was considered that "most of the necessary expenses are less at Yale than at Harvard."[2] The average expenditure of Yale men is somewhat over $800, but one can live very comfortably for from $500 to $600. Many scholarships are provided for those needing help and special aid is given to those preparing for the ministry. Societies at Yale are rather expensive, and tuition with incidentals has risen from $33 in 1811 to $155 now.[3]

A way in which Yale has progressed in a wrong direction lately is in largely increasing the cost of rooms. The money for the Yale dormitories was given to furnish accommodations for the students, not revenue to the college, which, though it badly enough needs the money, should not strive to obtain it by perverting gifts from their intended purpose. There is no danger that a poor man, with the aid extended to him, can not get through Yale. There is danger, as Dr. Bacon said, "not that rich men will send their sons to Yale College, but that, by the growing costliness of education at Yale, the sons of men who are only moderately rich will be repelled.[4]

PRESIDENT PORTER'S RESIGNATION.

In October, 1885, President Porter announced he would resign at the end of the college year, but would keep his professorship. This occasioned sorrow in losing him and joy that he still would remain connected with Yale. He continued teaching all the seniors until the fall of 1889, and then from failing health confined himself to elective classes until the close of 1891. He died March 4, 1892. His influence over all his students was that of a pure, noble-minded, upright Christian gentleman. As President Dwight said of him in his annual report for 1892, "He was ardent in the pursuit of knowledge, ever fresh in his activity, always ready to accept new truth, and always hopeful respecting the future. By reason of his kindly nature he won the affectionate

[1] Yale and City of Elms, p. 63 (Dwerow).

[2] Thwing, American Colleges, p. 20.

[3] 1852, $39; 1856, $45; 1866, $50; 1870, $60; 1875, $110; 1887, $150; 1891, $155.

[4] New Englander, new series, IV, 520. Pres. Dwight, seeing this danger, recommended cheaper dormitories for men of moderate means in his annual reports of 1891 and 1892.

pils and, as he won their friendship, he proved himself be their friend. As an instructor, he was large-minded When he could gather his students around his study ith them freely in the interchange of friendly conver- a very high degree stimulating and helpful." When ld students felt they had sustained a severe loss. His ediction to all who knew him.

on met in May, 1886, and chose Prof. Timothy Dwight School as his successor. On July 1, 1886, the second ht was inaugurated. It was in no small measure due to that President Porter could say:

is college for the kingdom of Christ in our own country have been College, during all of the present century, has been preëminently ole nation. Its undergraduates at times have represented almost Union, and there it not a State now in the Union in which they ered, in some by scores, in others by hundreds.[1]

ight, the elder, in 1814, said of Yale what might be almost without altering a syllable:

islature, a court, a congregation, a town meeting, nor even a fire- er insensible of the fact, does not share in these benefits. From circuitously indeed, but really and ultimately, the laws of the prudence; the rules which form its happy society and the doc- which are inculcated in its churches. He, therefore, who is a stitution of this kind, becomes a benefactor to his country and to by which it will hereafter be inhabited.[2]

ll earlier put it,

Thus o'er the happy land shall genius reign
And fair Yalensia lead the noble train.[3]

HARVARD AND YALE.

of these two, the oldest of the large colleges of the forces itself upon one, and is most interesting. The the colleges was closely interwoven. As we have seen, 's gift went to Harvard and both Eaton and Saltonstall the college in ye Bay."[4] On the other hand, Yale's arvard men, her first five presidents were from that to 1780 there was always at least one Harvard man on Then came a period of comparative separation; but e once more intimate relations, both in the field of ath- f scholarship.

Chapel, p. 25.
1, 175.
16, 454, "Uses and advantages of the fine arts," 1780, commence-

y of Education in Connecticut.
, 46.

In one field, that of polite literature,[1] Harvard confessedly excels. Charles Dudley Warner said of this, some years ago, "Harvard, in its graduates as well as in its professors, is conspicuous in literature." Yale's graduates "are distinguished in law, in politics, in business and in the pulpit. But, as a rule, these men have lacked literary accomplishment and literary taste."[2] He attributed this to lack of interest in literature in the government of Yale. But it has been pointed out that this is but a partial reason, and other causes have been at work. Among them, probably, is the fact that Yale's men have come so largely from the West and South, which have been unfavorable to literary production; the first, because of its rudeness due to its recent settlement, the second, because of the depressing power of slavery on masters as well as slaves. Furthermore, we must remember that Harvard, in the last half century, has occupied the place that Yale did in the Revolution, as to literature, and that, with the passing away of Harvard's cluster of great names, the scale again seems to descend on the side of Yale. Certainly great advance in literature has been made there of late years, so that the literary idea, always high enough, has been deepened and broadened.[3] In science of all kinds and scientific works, Yale and her professors yield the palm to no other college.[4]

Another difference between Yale and Harvard is in the centrifugal force of the former.[5] Gathering her students from all States, she sends them forth all over the country at their graduation. As a consequence of this, the literary men from Yale have not formed a school, since the time of the Revolutionary Pleiades. Harvard is not so cosmopolitan and, drawing a far larger number of students from close at hand, has not pressed out into new territory. Yale has, and results of this may be seen in the many college presidents this "Mother of Colleges" has sent forth and in the fact that so many of our colleges are managed according to Yale models. The influence of Yale differs from that of Harvard "*toto cœlo.*" Yale has kept a severity in her training, has sought for discipline more than culture, power more than grace, truth more than pleasure. Her scholars have been noted for exact and thorough learning wherever they go.[6]

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[1] Still Yale can count such authors as Pierpont, Hillhouse, Cooper (he did not graduate), Percival, Willis, Bushnell, Judd (author of Margaret), Bristed, Winthrop, Mitchell, and Stedman (Scribner), 11, 781.

Thwing, in Forum, xv, 499, attributes this to the influence of Boston and to the influence of Longfellow, Lowell, and E. T. Channing as teachers of English. He also attibutes the greater number of physicians among Harvard graduates to the influence of their medical school.

[2] Nation, 25, 135 (1877).

[3] Yale Lit. Mag., 25, 298 (1860).

[4] New Englander, 28, 306 (1869), for list of then recent works by Yale men.

[5] "Influence of Yale College on American civilization," Dr. Sprague in American Journal of Education, xi, 681.

[6] Scribner's, 11, 781.

Geo. Santayana, a Harvard graduate and instructor, says: "The essential object of the institution [Yale] is still to educate rather than to instruct, to be a mother of

us sphere Yale holds fast, more than Harvard, to the forefathers, and "represents the new school of liberal m." But Yale is not a sectarian college; it is a Chris- use it is directed by Christian men in a Christian com- has widened, but continues "simple, republican, and s." The students of Harvard are commonly supposed n those of Yale and, being more broken up into sets e less of that "class spirit" which has taken such deep l has produced such grand results. It is Yale's aim ts for "the hard realities of life," and if she does this lished the most important thing after all, for she has f her students.[2]

THE YALE IDEAL.

his assuming office as president, Dwight delivered an the Φ Β Κ Society on "What a Yale student ought ins a good picture of the traits of the ideal Yale man, sentences are worth quoting:

in Yale life, as I conceive of it, is a certain large-minded and f truth. Nearly allied to truth, and the true way of seeking it, is manly sense of duty I would mention as what seems to me to t of the genuine Yale spirit. As I look back over the history of his institution I think that there is nothing more marked than de- s kindred again to this second element in the Yale spirit, I men- seems to me to have always belonged to the life of the institu- n to estimate both men and things according to their true value. the world, I am sure, where a man is judged more justly, in ac- t he is, than here. We ask, what is the university? In as it may e truest sense, the university is that brotherhood to which we therhood of living men—who for the time abide in these rooms and e grounds, and move onward in these studies and enjoy this uld mention, as a fourth characteristic of the Yale spirit, that ctual and emotional elements which keeps them in due relations e spirit of this university has from the beginning been reverent ian faith and, while many may have gone through their career here faith an entrance into their hearts or controlling power over s held a supreme position and has ever summoned all who have d themselves to its influence. Let me add that the genuine Yale

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school of doctors. In this Yale has been true to the English tra- et, to America what Oxford and Cambridge are to England, a lation of national character is maintained, together with a tra- * * * The Yale principle is the English principle, and the only No wonder that all America loves Yale, where American tradi- American instincts unchecked, and young men are trained and keen struggle of American life." (Harvard Monthly, March, 1893, nments in t . In a word, Yale seems to be more American than life, politics, statesmanship represent a very important part of erefore a larger number of distinguished men of Yale do we find an of Harvard." (Forum, XV, p. 500.)

Yale College, N. H. Col. Hist. Soc. Colls., p. 441 (S. E. Baldwin).

d Fortnightly Review (1867), N. S. II, 458, G. M. Towle.

man is a gentleman—one who has the spirit of reverence for what is good, of kindness towards others, of gentleness and self-sacrifice and honor and truth, of obedience to that great command which bids us love our neighbors as ourselves. It has been often claimed for our college that it has a distaste and even abhorrence of all show and sham—of all outward show, that is, which has no corresponding reality behind it, and all pretense which may impose upon unknowing minds.[1]

SECTION IX.—PRESIDENT TIMOTHY DWIGHT (1886——).

The increase in the number of students under President Dwight reminds us of that which occurred at the accession of his grandfather, the elder President Dwight. The classes entering the college proper increased at once from 150 to over 200, those in the Scientific School in equal ratio, and in the first six years of his office the number in the whole university increased from 1,076 to 1,969. Yale has been broadening its life and studies, completing the ideal of its motto: "Lux et Veritas."[2]

President Dwight, a grandson of the first president of that name, was born at Norwich, Conn., on November 10, 1828. He graduated at Yale in 1849, studied theology, traveled, and was appointed Buckingham Professor of Sacred Literature in the Divinity School in 1858. He held this chair till his election to the presidency in 1886. He has gained great popularity, and much of the recent rapid progress of Yale is due to his zeal and devotion to its interests.

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[1] Pres. Dwight's report for 1892 contains words worthy of quotation. "The ordinary youth, when he enters college, is unsettled as to his future work in life. If he is not, in almost all cases he ought to be. The years between 17 and 20 have much to tell him concerning himself. Linguistic studies and mathematics are in a peculiar degree the disciplinary studies for this period of life. The second advantage, which is involved in the arrangement of the course as we have it in this college, is connected with the class system. Class feeling passes away as the uniting of the class in one body and in one work ceases. This loss of class feeling and class spirit is a loss of one of the great educating forces of college life. It is a loss which can scarcely be compensated by any advantages or gains of a different sort. The system of our college secures its students against this loss. The tendency at the present time is to ask for or demand the most radical changes in the old college curriculum. It is well to bear in mind that our best universities are linked closely to the past and that our fathers knew something, even if they did not know everything. The university growth, even more than any other growth, should be always out of the old roots into the new fruitage.

"The time element as related to college education is deserving of serious consideration when questions respecting such education are raised. There is, as we can not doubt, a gift of good which is immediately connected with the length of the college course. The fact that the student is set apart from the world and its affairs for four years, and that these years are consecrated for him to a general and broadening education, is one of great significance for his best life. The same suggestion may also have its appropriate bearing upon the proposal which has been made in some quarters to open the senior year of our undergraduate courses partly or wholly to the introduction of professional studies. It will be a misfortune indeed if the educated men of America are to be narrowed down to the limits of their business or profession, and thus are to lose the best part of educated life—its broad culture and wide-extending knowledge."

Am. Colls. and Am. Public, p. 215 (N. Porter).

YALE UNIVERSITY.[1]

rs Yale had been a university in fact, and it was felt best w assume the name to which it was entitled. The matter y the corporation in October, 1886, and it was unani- to assume the name Yale University, and to obtain ion of the legislature to its action. The act legalizing title Yale University, by the corporation existing under President and Fellows of Yale College" was approved on March 8, 1887, and accepted by the corporation on ame year. At the same time, the corporation fittingly name, Yale College, to the Academical Department originally denoted by it.[2]

EXPANSION.

f the university and the death of the treasurer, Mr. H. o had husbanded the funds of the institution with rare ose place President Dwight took for two years, gave the uch to do, while he has still further increased his labors llege pulpit, since the pastorship is vacant.[3] Still, in other, he has found time to show that he felt "that the niversity ought, in some way, to come into intellectual members of the student community. He should not be affairs if the institution is to gain from him the great- efit."[4]

needs of Yale have increased so rapidly that the strict- egard to invested funds has been necessary. The care- of the finances by President Dwight has been followed areful one under Mr. W. W. Farnam, the present treas- lt of this, the report for 1889 was enabled to state that he university was $336,649.61, and the expenses $334,- several of the previous years the balance had been on f the account.[5] In the first four years after President uration the university received funds amounting to hich $716,000.13 were given in 1889.[6]

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nt, 1890, an Alumni University Fund was begun to be made up of s from the Alumni, to be used for general university purposes. s existence it brought into the treasury $15,738.21; the second, it 7,450.88.

p. 6.

to the presidency, he insisted on being freed from all class-room l devote all his time to the general interests of the university.

p. 14.

p. 6. 1891-92, income $532,470.83, and expenses $520,246.31.

p. 57.

OSBORNE HALL—YALE UNIVERSITY.

CHITTENDEN LIBRARY—YALE UNIVERSITY.

THE CHITTENDEN LIBRARY OSBORN HALL, AND THE NEW GYMNASIUM.

The needs of the library for enlarged accommodations were recognized by a retired Brooklyn merchant, who had previously been a generous benefactor to Yale, Mr. Simeon B. Chittenden, sr. He offered to give $100,000 for a new library building in January, 1887, and this gift he later increased to $125,000. The building was given as a memorial of his deceased daughter, to whose memory he placed a magnificent stained-glass window in the reading room of the building.

The new building stands on the west side of the campus, between the art school building and the old library building, with which it is connected by a corridor. It is so built as to be capable of being made the south wing of a great library building at some future date. The building is constructed of brown stone from Longmeadow, Mass., in the Romanesque style of architecture.[1]

The main building is 50 by 100 feet and in three stories, each of 16 feet. The first floor will be devoted mainly for administration; the two upper floors entirely to the storage of books. On the south of the main building is the reading room, octagonal in shape and having a diameter within of 45 feet, with seats for 90 readers and wall space for 4,000 volumes of books of reference.

The building is plain, but handsome, absolutely fireproof, and contains space for 200,000 volumes, doubling the previous capacity of the library. It was opened June 23, 1890.

For the library fund a bequest of $10,000 from the late George Gabriel, of New Haven, was received in 1889, and one of equal amount from Gov. James G. English in 1890.

The coin collection which, though very fine, has been concealed from public view on account of lack of facilities for its exhibition in the old library, recently received valuable additions from the estate of Mr. C. Wyllys Betts (Yale College, 1867).

For many years the need of a new recitation building[2] had been felt, and there was great joy when it was announced that an unknown donor had given $125,000 for that purpose. These rejoicings were soon changed to wailings when it was known that attached to the gift was a condition that the building should stand on the corner of Chapel and College streets. This would necessitate the removal of the "fence" hallowed by so many tender recollections. The students protested, almost to a man, and they were joined by many of the alumni; but the claims of sentiment found scant sympathy from the corporation, and

[1] Report of 1888, p. 61.

[2] In the spring of 1891 a movement was begun by several ladies interested in the well-being of the University to have a Yale Infirmary built where in cases of injury or accident, students may find good food and careful nursing, so difficult, if not impossible to secure in college dormitories. A lot was purchased on Prospect street and a three-story building, 82 feet long and 42 feet wide, erected, with nineteen rooms for use of sick students. The Yale Infirmary was opened in January, 1893; $38,700 were raised for it.

g was begun. For some inexplicable reason the donor r name revealed until the building was completed, and ncement Day, 1889, was it announced that the building Mrs. Miriam A. Osborn, of New York City, in memory the late Charles J. Osborn. The gift was increased to g the process of building, and the name of Osborn Hall e structure. It contains about twenty recitation and d was opened in January, 1890. President Dwight says: gives universal satisfaction."[1] It is built of granite one, and some of the stone carving is very fine. The lding is that of the transition from Byzantine to Roman-

a new gymnasium has been felt for many years and a uild a new one was begun, largely through the influ- . L. Richards, some years since. Soon after the begin- committee of graduates undertook to raise the fund construction of a gymnasium worthy of Yale. In the lot on Elm street, between High and York, was bought

ures 138 feet in width and 310 in depth and on it the on rose. It has been suggested that it be called the asium, in honor of that professor's services in arousing lan. It was opened in January, 1893, and cost $225,000, over 700 graduates, only one giving over $10,000. It is ling of the sort in the country. Messrs. Arthur M. Adee, William McLane, and Thos. C. Sloane were, next ls, the prime movers. It contains bowling alleys, bath room, swimming pool, 2 rowing tanks, offices, anthropo- ncing and boxing room, trophy room, over 1,000 lockers, and an exercising hall covering over 10,000 square feet. buildings[2] are rapidly increasing in number, the de- met, and others are even now imperatively needed.[3]

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p. 14.

part of this work was written, in 1890, three fine dormitories have lege. Mr. Pierce N. Welch, of New Haven (Yale College, 1862), in n memory of his father, Harmanus N. Welch, a large dormitory side of the campus, north of Osborn Hall. Welch Hall is of Long- 167 feet long and 44 feet wide, four stories with a basement, con- and bath rooms. The fourth story is in a high roof, with dormers. ided with open fire places and will accommodate 78 students. The used in the fall of 1891. In January, 1893, Mr. and Mrs. Cornelius s York City, presented to Yale, in memory of their son, a member l, a dormitory to be known as the Wm. Henry Vanderbilt Hall. hapel street, between the Art School and Osborn Hall, and will e quadrangle. In April, 1893, Dr. White, of New York City, pro- ry, to be located on the northeast corner of High and Elm streets. ms for the college periodicals also.

Experimental Psychology was opened in the house on Elm street Hall, in the fall of 1892, under Dr. E. W. Scripture.

Another need of the university, and a most pressing one, is for more land. The campus will afford space for only one or two more buildings, and others will have to be built in the surrounding squares. For the purchase of land in these squares the university needs money, hardly less imperatively than it does for the buildings themselves.[1] It is slowly buying it up. A movement to provide tennis courts near the University is now (May, 1893) in progress.

THE UNIVERSITY.

Several important changes have been made under President Dwight in the publications of the university. The catalogue has been thoroughly revised and enlarged, the president's report has been rearranged so as to cover all the important occurrences of the college year, and the date of the conclusion of the report is the end of December instead of the end of June. The triennial Catalogue was issued in English for the first time in 1892.

The university bulletin, a new publication, is issued and posted every Saturday, and contains notices of lectures, meetings, etc., for the following week.

The number of graduate students has increased from 56 to 125 and the facilities of this department have been largely increased. In the fall of 1892 women were for the first time admitted to this department; 23 became students.

Prof. William R. Harper, who began his duties as professor of Semitic languages in October, 1886, succeeded in arousing great interest, not only in that branch but in Bible study also, and as a result of this he was made, in the fall of 1889, Woolsey professor of biblical literature in Yale College. This is a new chair, endowed with $50,000 by several generous persons who desire only to be known as "friends of Bible study."[2] The other branches of graduate-work have been successfully carried on and in the last annual report the need of a special building for this department is mentioned.[3] Probably the most pressing of all needs of the university is "an increase in the permanent funds *the income of which may be used for any purpose* according to the wisdom and discretion of the corporation." Such gifts would not only enable the university to go into new lines, but would relieve the college from the burden of sustaining part of the general expenses, and so enable it to enlarge its work.[4] This demand for increased endowment is not because of weakness but "from growth and development" of almost marvelous rapidity. "A living institution," says President Dwight, "is always a growing one. A growing institution is ever asking for the

[1] Report for 1888, p. 20.

[2] Frank K. Sanders succeeded Prof. Harper in the Woolsey chair in 1892.

[3] Annual Report, 1889, p. 24.

[4] Annual Report, 1889, p. 13.

reasing wants and ever rewarding, by its larger life
he friends who supply these wants."[1]
es are offered to graduates in the annual catalogue

YALE COLLEGE.

lministration of President Dwight many gifts have
ge proper. During the first year of his incumbency
eived from the Hon. D. H. Chamberlain (Yale Col-
income from which was to furnish an annual prize
for the freshman class passing the best examination
same year $5,000 was given by the daughters of the
obinson, of Hartford (Yale College, 1843), to encourage
Latin language in college. For mathematics, the late
orest (Yale College, 1854) gave $4,000 to be added to
iously given by his father, and Messrs. John and
e, of New York City, gave $5,000 and $3,000, respec-
oane laboratory. The fact that these gentlemen thus
running expenses of the building given by them is
nd imitation.
ate Erastus L. De Forest (Yale College, 1854) added
rmer gifts for the mathematical department; Alvan
ale College, 1824), gave $25,000 to establish a profes-
, and the Rev. Burdett Hart gave $6,388 for the
s of the college. The Kingsley Trust Association
Keys Society) endowed the prize speaking at junior
2,600 in August, 1888. This was given in memory of
ck (Yale College, 1879). Mrs. U. B. Humphrey gave,
r the Larned scholarships, $15,000 for general pur-
iversity, and $5,000 for the fund for instruction in
eral purposes of the university, Alexander Duncan
0 and Oliver B. Jennings $5,000. The university was
siduary legatee of Dr. Ebenezer Belden, of New York
ge, 1841), and of Rev. E. E. Atwater, of New Haven
836), and for beneficiary education $25,000 was be-
seph A. Christman (Yale College, 1857), and $5,000
arles L. Ives. For the same purpose, $25,000 were
e avails of the estate of the late Henry L. Ellsworth
,000 in 1889, making the Ellsworth fund amount to
889, $40,000 for scholarships was given from the estate
as G. Waterman (Yale College, 1886), and $2,000 from
lexander H. Holley. In 1889, also, $5,000 were given
the late Burgess Scott Hurtt (Yale College, 1878), in
, to found a scholarship to be given to some member
the end of sophomore year, and Mr. John Sloane
duate fellowship in physics with $10,000. Another

[1] Annual Report, 1889, p. 25.

large fund for beneficiary scholarships was received in the fall of 1889 from the estate of the late Philip Marett, of New Haven. This, it is estimated, will amount to $130,000. During 1889 the Rev. Dr. George Nichols gave $5,000 as a memorial fund for the general purposes of the university. Daniel B. Fayerweather, a retired merchant of New York City, dying in November, 1890, left $300,000 to Yale, one-third of which was to be for the Scientific School. His executors, to whom the residuary estate was given in trust, later gave Yale $150,000 more and one-tenth of the final residue. The total amount is estimated at over half a million dollars. In 1890, also, Mrs. Harriet T. Leavenworth, of Syracuse, N. Y., gave $15,000 to the general fund, and Hon. W. W. Phelps gave $1,500 for the purchase of the Barringer collection of Egyptian antiquities. Other gifts in 1890 were $1,000 to establish a prize in English Composition for Sophomores, in memory of C. Wyllys Betts (Yale College, 1867); $275,000 left by the will of Thomas C. Sloane (Yale College, 1868), $75,000 of which were for the running expenses of the Sloane Laboratory, the rest to the University funds; $20,000 from the late Gov. James E. English to endow a professorship of English in the Scientific School; $40,000 for beneficiary scholarships in the Theological Seminary from the will of Mrs. E. P. Fogg, of New York; $50,000 from Morris K. Jesup, of New York, to found the Charles Jesup (Yale College, 1814) fund, for the use of the theological department; $9,000 from the estate of Mrs. Emily W. Colton for the establishment of the Henry Allir scholarships; the valuable library of the late Rev. Henry M. Dexter, and $27,246.35 from Dr. Henry Bronson for the department of Comparative Anatomy in addition to over $50,000 previously given. In 1891 Mrs. Miriam J. Osborn made the University the residuary legatee of one-fourth of her estate, probably from $75,000 to $100,000. In 1892 Dr. C. R. Palmer, of Bridgeport, Conn., presented $5,000 to the Academical Department to found a scholarship in memory of his son, Albert B. Palmer (Yale College, 1892).

In 1887 Dr. Barbour, the college pastor, withdrew to become principal of the Congregational College of British America, at Montreal. His chair is still vacant.[1] In 1888, Prof. Dexter resigned the Larned professorship of American history and Prof. George B. Adams, a graduate of Beloit College and of the Yale Divinity School, was appointed in his place. In Greek, Messrs. Horatio M. Reynolds (Yale College, 1880) and Thomas D. Goodell (Yale College, 1877) were appointed assistant professors in 1888. In 1889 Dr. Albert S. Cook, a graduate of Rutgers in 1872 and at the time of his election a professor in the University of California, was chosen professor of English.[2]

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[1] Pres. Dwight, in his annual report for 1892, says: "During the last 125 years only 5 professors of this institution who had been in its service for a longer period than 12 months have ever withdrawn from it for the purpose of entering upon professorships in other colleges or universities." He appeals for larger salaries.

[2] Recent appointments to professorships have been E. B. Clapp, Assistant Professor in Greek, 1890; E. P. Morris, Latin, 1891; Rev. Edward L. Curtis, Hebrew (in

ents for admission were raised in 1887 and in 1888 y and kindred branches were given as electives. Since all the senior class being required to take one course ney are allowed to choose between four on that subject. ffered 128 elective courses to the two upper classes.

THE DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC.

n of 1888 the Fairfield County (Connecticut) Alumni ointed a committee to consider a plan to establish a music. As a result of this the association voted to ject before the corporation. After discussion, that solution that the corporation desired "to express their the project," that they had "considered the plan for nt and are prepared to take decisive action,[1] whenever hed for the purpose; which they judge should not be 00."

the department are considered to be "the erection of a g, with a concert hall of a capacity of seating 200 upon the orchestra, and 800 in the auditorium." A large nd piano would be needed for the hall, and "the recire rooms, the rooms for organ practice, for the library, hould be arranged around, below, and above the hall." so be professors needed to "offer instruction in the and composition in vocal culture, in organ and piano the more important of orchestral instruments." To ng of this department, the Hon. Robbins Battell and Eldridge, members of a family well known for their bene-, established the Battell professorship of music, to J. Stoeckel, long instructor in music, was appointed. ttell's generosity the rooms on the ground floor of the g were furnished for the use of the musical professor. ss of 50 students was formed by Dr. Stoeckel in prepaective courses in music to be offered in the fall of 1890. re in harmony, counterpoint, canon, and fugue, and in fall of 1892 students in music alone were admitted for d seven such appeared.

1, 1891; F. C. Porter, Biblical Theology, 1891; T. H. Russell, gery and Surgical Anatomy, 1891; G. M. Duncan, Assistant Pro- nd Moral Philosophy, 1891; A. Guyot Cameron, Assistant Pro- 1891; G. F. Gruener, Assistant Professor of German, 1891; A. , 1891; Charles H. Smith, History, 1890; H. S. Williams, Geology, ns, French, 1892; Dr. Louis S. De Forest, Assistant Professor e, 1892; Dr. Oliver T. Osborne, Assistant Professor of Materia entics, 1892; Dr. Harry B. Ferris, Assistant Professor of Anatomy, Lusk, Assistant Professor of Physiology, 1892; G. D. Watrous and nt Professors in the Law Schools; E. T. McLaughlin, Assistant h, in 1890.

1889, p. 18.

SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

The growth of the number in this part of the university has been very great, and "the resources of the school were taxed to the utmost to furnish the proper facilities for the increasing number of students."[1] Attempts were made to use the space at command more economically, but still there was overcrowding until the school came into possession of the Sheffield mansion and real estate, valued in all at $182,000. This property was left by Mr. Sheffield to the school after the decease of his wife, which occurred on April 21, 1889, except the house and house lot, in which a life estate was given to one of his sons. Arrangements were made with this son whereby he surrendered his life interest for an annuity, which enabled the school to come into immediate possession of the property. The Sheffield grounds border on those previously occupied by the school and extend 190 feet on Grove street and 540 feet on Hillhouse avenue. The value of this addition to the school's property is very great.[2] "The Sheffield mansion has been converted into a biological laboratory, including also laboratories of physiological chemistry, comparative anatomy, and botany," and work was begun in it in the fall of 1889. "The building, which is to be known as the Sheffield Biological Laboratory, can easily accommodate, with its present outfit, 100 students."

The school needed a building for civil and mechanical engineering. This want was so strongly felt that in the fall of 1891, the University broke ground between the two Sheffield Halls on Prospect street for a building to contain apartments for engineering, mechanical, and physical laboratories and facilities for practical instruction in electro-technics. The building is of red brick, four stories above the basement, and fronts 115 feet on the street, running back 84 feet. After the building was well under way, without any solicitation, Mrs. Jane E. Winchester, of New Haven, gave the University $130,000, thus generously bearing the entire cost of the building. In recognition of this the name of Winchester Hall was bestowed upon the building. It was opened for use in January, 1893.

The subject of adding a fourth year to the course has been much discussed by the governing board.[3]

It is felt by many of the wisest and most thoughtful men in the University, both in the school and out of it, that this addition of a fourth year would be a very desirable addition. A large proportion of the graduates of the school, also, as it is believed, are disposed to hope for the addition, and to favor it, as soon as the funds at command may render it practicable.

But it was felt that at present it could not be done, nor until large additions should be made to the endowment of the school.

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[1] Annual Report, 1888, p. 26. In 1892 Pres. Dwight recommended the erection of dormitories for the scientific school.

[2] Annual Report, 1889, p. 31.

[3] Annual Report, 1888, p. 27.

In 1886 an attempt was made to get the legislature to revoke the payment of the income of the fund from the sale of the land script to the Sheffield Scientific School. As a result of this in 1887, the legislature decided that the act appropriating the income to the school and the agreement of the corporation constituted a binding contract which could not be revoked.[1]

Prof. Oscar D. Allen, professor of analytical chemistry and metallurgy, resigned in 1887, and Messrs. Samuel L. Penfield and Horace L. Wells were appointed assistant professors to take his place in 1888. Prof. Chester S. Lyman died on January 29, 1890, having resigned his chair a short time before. At the beginning of the year 1889–90 Lieut. C. A. L. Totten, U. S. A., was detailed as professor of military science and tactics. He organized military companies in the academic and scientific departments and was succeeded in the fall of 1892 by Capt. James S. Pettit.

As a proof of the rapid growth of "Sheff." it may be stated that the number of students was twice as large in 1890 as when Mr. Sheffield died, in 1882, and amounted to 529 in the academic year 1892-93.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

In the Divinity School, the period has been one of prosperity.[2] The number of students increased from 117 to 136 in 1890, and diminished to 109 in 1893. The endowment has grown. Mr. Samuel Holmes, in 1889, added $11,000 to his previous gift for the professorship of the Hebrew language and literature.

In 1887 Mr. Morris K. Jesup, of New York, gave $2,500 for the general fund of the department; the late Albert S. Barnes, of Brooklyn, and Robert Peck, of New Haven, each gave $1,000 for the same purpose in 1888. The late George Gabriel bequeathed it $5,000, as did the late Mrs. Catharine W. Jarman, of New Haven, who wished to have the income used for beneficiary education. For that purpose, Mr. John S. Welles, of Hartford, bequeathed $12,000, and Mr. Walter W. Seymour, of New York, gave $9,000.[3]

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[1] In 1890, by the provisions of an act of Congress, Connecticut received from the United States $15,000 for 1890 and an annual increase of $1,000 till $25,000 be reached, the amount to be used for instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English language, and mathematical, physical, natural, and economic science. This money by the State's contract in 1863 came to the Scientific School. In 1892, the legislature, by a most unwise, if not illegal, measure withdrew the income from the land grant from Yale and conferred it on a small institution called the Storrs Agricultural School, at Mansfield.

[2] In 1891, through the energy of Prof. Day, a missionary library of great value was established in connection with the Divinity school. In 1892 Mrs. Caroline E. Washburn, of East River, Conn., left the Divinity school $25,000.

[3] In the autumn of 1891 an unknown friend established the Dwight Fellowship (in memory of Mrs. Susan B. Dwight) with an endowment of $5,000. It is to alternate with the Hooker fellowship.

A general catalogue of the divinity school, prepared by Prof. George E. Day, was issued in 1889. It shows that since 1822, 1,607 had studied there, of which number 1,129 were still living.[1]

The law department received an endowment of $25,000 from Junius S. Morgan, to establish the Edward J. Phelps professorship of commercial law and contracts.[2] Prof. W. K. Townsend was assigned to the chair, and in 1889 the department was strengthened by the return of Prof. E. J. Phelps, who had been United States minister to Great Britain during the previous four years.

In 1887 a general catalogue of the law school was published, showing that 1,480 men had studied there since its founding in 1824. In the same year the corporation decided to grant the degree of bachelor of civil law on students not candidates for the degree of bachelor of laws, who shall have satisfactorily pursued a prescribed course for two years in elementary and American law, international law, general jurisprudence, political science, and Roman law.

The increase of the school has been rapid in numbers, from 79 in 1886–87, to 106 in 1888–89, and 171 in 1892–93. In 1889 the daughters of the late Lucius F. Robinson, of Hartford, gave $5,000 to commemorate their father's interest in legal studies. This fund has been used to found a lectureship in municipal law, called after William L. Storrs, a former professor in the school and grand-uncle of the donors.

On January 23, 1890, Prof. Johnson T. Platt, one of the the three men who built up the law school in 1869, died suddenly.

A lot of ground on the north side of the Green was bought for the law school in 1890, on which it is hoped soon to erect a building especially for the school.

When President Dwight took office the medical department seemed almost at the point of dissolution. It had but 27 students, and the number had been steadily diminishing for several years. Now there are 76 men in attendance, and the reasonableness of the plan adopted some ten years ago of making the course one of three years and having recitations has become more and more evident.[3] The class of 1892, 22 in number, was larger than any that had graduated since 1831.

In 1888 Dr. Sanford, having been a professor for twenty-five years, resigned, and Dr. Samuel Williston was his successor. During that year an association of the alumni of the school was formed; a catalogue of all the living graduates, between 400 and 500 in number, was issued; and the clinical facilities were increased by the completion of the oper-

[1] A serious fire in the upper part of East Divinity Hall in the fall of 1891 for a short time caused considerable inconvenience till repairs could be made.

[2] J. Pierpont Morgan gave $25,000 more to complete the endowment in 1891.

[3] A brick chemical laboratory, three stories in height, 72 feet in length by 41 in width, was erected back of the main medical building in 1892, at the cost of $35,000.

the New Haven Hospital. Dr. Henry Bronson gave
ent of comparative anatomy $10,500 in 1888, and
, thus endowing a chair in that department.

THE ART SCHOOL.

has grown in excellence, although it has not in-
rs.[1] Its collections have been increased by the loan
lection of about one hundred and seventy old Dutch
tings, belonging to Mr. Louis R. Ehrich (Yale College,
gift of various paintings and statues. Its galleries
ll, and the need is felt of an annex to the building to
e growth. The studies exhibited by the students
87 in 1887 to 1,265 in 1889. There were 31 students

ABODY MUSEUM AND THE OBSERVATORY.

of the Peabody Museum[2] have increased greatly, and
coming crowded, so that in 1889 a temporary building
the rear of the museum, and even then only a small
litions can be placed on exhibition.
y[3] has continued its successful work, and through the
f. Loomis two parts of the first volume of its transac-
red. In September, 1889, Prof. Loomis died, and in
university the largest single gift, except that of Mr.
t ever received.

efficient counselor in the administration of the observatory even
s life. By the munificent bequest in his will he has connected
the future in such a way that its life and his life will be closely
e thoughts of all. After paying some small legacies, the bulk of
el as worth $300,000, was left as follows: The income of one-
tate, which is to be held in trust, shall be devoted to the uses of
the time of his own decease, and that after the decease of each
ome of one of the two remaining thirds shall be appropriated to
The income which is received is to be applied to all or one or
ng objects, namely, the payment of the salaries of observers,
vely devoted to the making of observations for the promotion
nomy; or the reduction of astronomical observations and their
prepared for publication; or the defraying of the expenses of
tions, based upon astronomical observations. The gift is thus
the special and legitimate work of the observatory, as connected
of astronomical observations, and is not to be appropriated to
stitution in other lines.

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[1] helor of Fine Arts was established in 1891, to those successfully
ars course.

[2] um received the Leonard collection of minerals of 3,500 speci-
rederick B. Leonard (Yale College, 1824), and from friends and
ons, $1,250, for the purchase of a large mass of meteoric iron.
Edward M. Reed, vice-president of the N. Y., N. H. & H. R. R.,
two-thirds of his estate, subject to certain life interests.

[3] 889, p. 52.

YALE'S INFLUENCE ON THE UNITED STATES.

In concluding this account of the history of the college, which we have traced from its feeble beginnings, we can not do better than to sum up its influence on America and its civilization.[1]

The surroundings of Yale are fortunate, and it is both a cause and an effect of them. "The home of the university is, and always has been, under the guardian care of the State,"[2] and that State, in proportion to its population, educates a larger number of college students than any other.[3] Its influence, going out from that State, has spread over the whole nation.

Mr. Richard H. Greene has prepared an interesting table of the distinguished men calling Yale their *alma mater*.[4] This list contains the names of 1 Vice-President of the United States, 17 Cabinet officers, 1 Chief Justice of the United States, 1 chief justice of Canada, 2 national officers of the Hawaiian Islands, 1 minister plenipotentiary from China to the United States, 3 judges of the United States Supreme Court, 1 Surgeon-General of the United States, 50 United States Senators, 20 United States district judges, 1 circuit judge of the United States, 22 ministers plenipotentiary of the United States, 160 State judges, 4 chancellors, 187 members of Congress, 40 State governors, and 92 college presidents.[5]

Four Yale men, Livingston, Morris, Wolcott, and Hall, signed the Declaration of Independence; the same number, Dyer, Livingston, Johnson, and Baldwin, signed the Federal Constitution.

In history Yale is represented by Trumbull, Holmes, and Pitkin; in geography by Morse; in poetry by Percival, Hillhouse, Barlow, Trumbull, Stedman, and Sill. In literature we find such names as Cooper, Willis, Judd, Bristed, and Mitchell; in scholarship, Webster, Worcester, Woolsey, Hadley, and Whitney. Silliman, Morse, Eli Whitney, Dana, Chauvenet, Loomis, and Marsh are among Yale's famous sons in science and invention; Edwards, Hopkins, Bellamy, Emmons, Dwight, Stuart, Bushnell, Taylor, Murdock, Beecher, Nettleton, Tyler, and Seabury, in divinity; Gallaudet and Cogswell in the education of the deaf and dumb. In politics and law we find such names as Kent, Jeremiah Mason, Grimke,[6] Evarts, Waite, Tilden, and Depew; in philosophy,

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[1] President Dwight, in his report for 1892, says: "It is a very interesting fact connected with the history of our University that at no time in the past has there been any separation between those who had wealth or competence and those who had not. There is no such separation at the present time. The measure of men in the University is the same that it has been from the beginning. No truer democracy, in the best sense of the word, can be found anywhere than is to be found here.

[2] Annual Report, 1889, p. 6.

[3] Report of Commissioner of Education, 1872, p. 37.

[4] New England Histor. Gen. Reg., XLII, 85.

[5] In "Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography" are 15,142 names. Of these 713 belong to Yale graduates: 194 clergy, 37 soldiers, 149 lawyers, 55 statesmen, 19 business men, 53 authors, 43 physicians, 4 artists, 83 educators, 38 scientists, 15 journalists, 14 public men, 3 inventors, and 6 philanthropists. Forum, XV, 495; Charles F. Thwing.

[6] New Englander, 16, 446; Scribner, XI, 782.

ah Porter, Henry N. Day, and Wm. T. Harris; among John Sergeant and David Brainerd. But Yale's chief Virginia of old, she is a mother of presidents. Except hardly a prominent college which has not had, at one a Yale man at its head. The first presidents of the s and universities were Yale men: Princeton, Colum- Williams, Hamilton, University of Georgia, Kenyon, University of Missouri, University of Mississippi, isconsin, Beloit, Chicago University, University of l, and Johns Hopkins. Iowa University, Washington ersity of Pennsylvania, College of South Carolina, lege of Eastern Tennessee, Hampden-Sidney, Beyroot, lso had one Yale president. Many colleges were not Yale man at their head, but came to that source of again. Columbia has had three Yale men as presi- Princeton, 3; University of Vermont, 2; Middlebury, Vestern Reserve, 3; Illinois, 2; University of Wiscon- of Missouri, 2; Washington University, 2; and the alifornia, Georgia, and Mississippi, each 2.[1]

nbers, but in character, do Yale educators stand fore- em are Jonathan Dickinson, Samuel Johnson, Jonathan Burr, Timothy Dwight, Theodore D. Woolsey, Noah arnard, Francis A. P. Barnard, Andrew D. White, and Daniel C. Gilman.

facts, one is forced to admit that Yale's influence on tion has been second to none, and that it has fulfilled idea of a college, as a place where youths may be so become of service, through the blessing of God, both nmonwealth.

e ever been faithful, and the eloquent tribute of one stand here at the close of this account of its history:[2]

We care not that the dawn should throw
Its flash upon our portico;
But rather that our natal star,
Bright Hesper in the twilight far,
Should beckon toward the distant West,
Which he—our Berkeley—loved the best;
Whereto, his prophet line did say,
"The course of empire takes its way."
And in the groves of that young land
A mighty school has judgment planned,
To teach new knowledge to new men—
Strange sciences undreamed of then
She comes—had come, unknown before—
Though not on 'vext Bermothes' shore;'
Yet will she not her prophet fail—
The Old—the New—the same dear Yale.

412, Rev. A. L. Chapin. [2] Scribner, xi, 784.

CHAPTER VI.

TRINITY COLLEGE.[1]

EARLY EFFORTS FOR AN EPISCOPALIAN COLLEGE.

The Episcopal Church in Connecticut, as we have seen and as one of its ablest members admits, "had, one may almost say, been born in the library of Yale College." It virtually began with the change of faith of Rector Cutler and his associates in 1722. For many years the adherents of the Church of England were too few and too closely bound to Yale to wish to send their sons elsewhere. Dr. Johnson especially showed long and valuable friendship towards his alma mater. As the Episcopalians grew stronger and Yale became more rigid in its religious position through the influence of President Clap, those who wished to send their sons to a place, where they might be instructed by Episcopalians found King's (now Columbia) College in New York so convenient that none other was needed.

After the Revolution and the consecration of Samuel Seabury as Bishop of Connecticut by the Scottish bishops, there was an effort to establish an institution of learning in Connecticut, which should be under Episcopalian auspices.

In 1788 the first steps were taken,[2] and at the convention held in 1792 at East Haddam a committee was appointed "to prepare and report to the next convention a plan of incorporation for the promotion of religious and charitable purposes."[3] This seems to have been the germ of a resolution of the convention two years later, appointing a committee "to prepare an address to the members of the Protestant Episcopal Church in this State, pointing out the importance of establishing an Episcopal academy in this State and to provide subscription papers for the purpose of obtaining monies to effect such an establishment."[4] The academy was established accordingly and located in Cheshire. It was familiarly known as "Seabury College;" but when chartered in 1801 its legal name became simply "The Episcopal Academy of Connecticut." It was never a college nor had it power to confer degrees,

[1] The illustrations of Trinity College buildings are from photographs taken by Mr. Philip J. McCook.

[2] Perry American Episcopal Church, II, 538.

[3] Journal of Convention, p. 5.

[4] Journal of Convention, p. 8.

easing wants and ever rewarding, by its larger life
e friends who supply these wants."[1]
s are offered to graduates in the annual catalogue

YALE COLLEGE.

ministration of President Dwight many gifts have
ge proper. During the first year of his incumbency
ived from the Hon. D. H. Chamberlain (Yale Col-
ncome from which was to furnish an annual prize
or the freshman class passing the best examination
same year $5,000 was given by the daughters of the
binson, of Hartford (Yale College, 1843), to encourage
Latin language in college. For mathematics, the late
rest (Yale College, 1854) gave $4,000 to be added to
usly given by his father, and Messrs. John and
, of New York City, gave $5,000 and $3,000, respec-
ane laboratory. The fact that these gentlemen thus
running expenses of the building given by them is
d imitation.
te Erastus L. De Forest (Yale College, 1854) added
mer gifts for the mathematical department; Alvan
le College, 1824), gave $25,000 to establish a profes-
, and the Rev. Burdett Hart gave $6,388 for the
of the college. The Kingsley Trust Association
Keys Society) endowed the prize speaking at junior
2,600 in August, 1888. This was given in memory of
k (Yale College, 1879). Mrs. U. B. Humphrey gave,
r the Larned scholarships, $15,000 for general pur-
versity, and $5,000 for the fund for instruction in
eral purposes of the university, Alexander Duncan
and Oliver B. Jennings $5,000. The university was
idnary legatee of Dr. Ebenezer Belden, of New York
ge, 1841), and of Rev. E. E. Atwater, of New Haven
36), and for beneficiary education $25,000 was be-
seph A. Christman (Yale College, 1857), and $5,000
arles L. Ives. For the same purpose, $25,000 were
avails of the estate of the late Henry L. Ellsworth
,000 in 1889, making the Ellsworth fund amount to
89, $40,000 for scholarships was given from the estate
as G. Waterman (Yale College, 1886), and $2,000 from
exander H. Holley. In 1889, also, $5,000 were given
the late Burgess Scott Hurtt (Yale College, 1878), in
to found a scholarship to be given to some member
the end of sophomore year, and Mr. John Sloane
duate fellowship in physics with $10,000. Another

[1] Annual Report, 1889, p. 25.

large fund for beneficiary scholarships was received in the fall of 1889 from the estate of the late Philip Marett, of New Haven. This, it is estimated, will amount to $130,000. During 1889 the Rev. Dr. George Nichols gave $5,000 as a memorial fund for the general purposes of the university. Daniel B. Fayerweather, a retired merchant of New York City, dying in November, 1890, left $300,000 to Yale, one-third of which was to be for the Scientific School. His executors, to whom the residuary estate was given in trust, later gave Yale $150,000 more and one-tenth of the final residue. The total amount is estimated at over half a million dollars. In 1890, also, Mrs. Harriet T. Leavenworth, of Syracuse, N. Y., gave $15,000 to the general fund, and Hon. W. W. Phelps gave $1,500 for the purchase of the Barringer collection of Egyptian antiquities. Other gifts in 1890 were $1,000 to establish a prize in English Composition for Sophomores, in memory of C. Wyllys Betts (Yale College, 1867); $275,000 left by the will of Thomas C. Sloane (Yale College, 1868), $75,000 of which were for the running expenses of the Sloane Laboratory, the rest to the University funds; $20,000 from the late Gov. James E. English to endow a professorship of English in the Scientific School; $40,000 for beneficiary scholarships in the Theological Seminary from the will of Mrs. E. P. Fogg, of New York; $50,000 from Morris K. Jesup, of New York, to found the Charles Jesup (Yale College, 1814) fund, for the use of the theological department; $9,000 from the estate of Mrs. Emily W. Colton for the establishment of the Henry Allir scholarships; the valuable library of the late Rev. Henry M. Dexter, and $27,246.35 from Dr. Henry Bronson for the department of Comparative Anatomy in addition to over $50,000 previously given. In 1891 Mrs. Miriam J. Osborn made the University the residuary legatee of one-fourth of her estate, probably from $75,000 to $100,000. In 1892 Dr. C. R. Palmer, of Bridgeport, Conn., presented $5,000 to the Academical Department to found a scholarship in memory of his son, Albert B. Palmer (Yale College, 1892).

In 1887 Dr. Barbour, the college pastor, withdrew to become principal of the Congregational College of British America, at Montreal. His chair is still vacant.[1] In 1888, Prof. Dexter resigned the Larned professorship of American history and Prof. George B. Adams, a graduate of Beloit College and of the Yale Divinity School, was appointed in his place. In Greek, Messrs. Horatio M. Reynolds (Yale College, 1880) and Thomas D. Goodell (Yale College, 1877) were appointed assistant professors in 1888. In 1889 Dr. Albert S. Cook, a graduate of Rutgers in 1872 and at the time of his election a professor in the University of California, was chosen professor of English.[2]

[1] Pres. Dwight, in his annual report for 1892, says: "During the last 125 years only 5 professors of this institution who had been in its service for a longer period than 12 months have ever withdrawn from it for the purpose of entering upon professorships in other colleges or universities." He appeals for larger salaries.

[2] Recent appointments to professorships have been E. B. Clapp, Assistant Professor in Greek, 1890; E. P. Morris, Latin, 1891; Rev. Edward L. Curtis, Hebrew (in

ts for admission were raised in 1887 and in 1888 and kindred branches were given as electives. Since ll the senior class being required to take one course y are allowed to choose between four on that subject. red 128 elective courses to the two upper classes.

THE DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC.

of 1888 the Fairfield County (Connecticut) Alumni nted a committee to consider a plan to establish a usic. As a result of this the association voted to et before the corporation. After discussion, that olution that the corporation desired "to express their the project," that they had "considered the plan for t and are prepared to take decisive action,[1] whenever d for the purpose; which they judge should not be ."

e department are considered to be "the erection of a with a concert hall of a capacity of seating 200 upon he orchestra, and 800 in the auditorium." A large d piano would be needed for the hall, and "the recit rooms, the rooms for organ practice, for the library, uld be arranged around, below, and above the hall." be professors needed to "offer instruction in the nd composition in vocal culture, in organ and piano the more important of orchestral instruments." To of this department, the Hon. Robbins Battell and dridge, members of a family well known for their bene established the Battell professorship of music, to Stoeckel, long instructor in music, was appointed. ell's generosity the rooms on the ground floor of the were furnished for the use of the musical professor. of 50 students was formed by Dr. Stoeckel in prepa- tive courses in music to be offered in the fall of 1890. in harmony, counterpoint, canon, and fugue, and in l of 1892 students in music alone were admitted for seven such appeared.

1891; F. C. Porter, Biblical Theology, 1891; T. H. Russell, ry and Surgical Anatomy, 1891; G. M. Duncan, Assistant Pro- Moral Philosophy, 1891; A. Guyot Cameron, Assistant Pro- 1; G. F. Gruener, Assistant Professor of German, 1891; A. 1891; Charles H. Smith, History, 1890; H. S. Williams, Geology, s, French, 1892; Dr. Louis S. De Forest, Assistant Professor 1892; Dr. Oliver T. Osborne, Assistant Professor of Materia tica, 1892; Dr. Harry B. Ferris, Assistant Professor of Anatomy, sk, Assistant Professor of Physiology, 1892; G. D. Watrous and Professors in the Law Schools; E. T. McLaughlin, Assistant in 1891.

89, p. 18.

SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL.

The growth of the number in this part of the university has been very great, and "the resources of the school were taxed to the utmost to furnish the proper facilities for the increasing number of students."[1] Attempts were made to use the space at command more economically, but still there was overcrowding until the school came into possession of the Sheffield mansion and real estate, valued in all at $182,000. This property was left by Mr. Sheffield to the school after the decease of his wife, which occurred on April 21, 1889, except the house and house lot, in which a life estate was given to one of his sons. Arrangements were made with this son whereby he surrendered his life interest for an annuity, which enabled the school to come into immediate possession of the property. The Sheffield grounds border on those previously occupied by the school and extend 190 feet on Grove street and 540 feet on Hillhouse avenue. The value of this addition to the school's property is very great.[2] "The Sheffield mansion has been converted into a biological laboratory, including also laboratories of physiological chemistry, comparative anatomy, and botany," and work was begun in it in the fall of 1889. "The building, which is to be known as the Sheffield Biological Laboratory, can easily accommodate, with its present outfit, 100 students."

The school needed a building for civil and mechanical engineering. This want was so strongly felt that in the fall of 1891, the University broke ground between the two Sheffield Halls on Prospect street for a building to contain apartments for engineering, mechanical, and physical laboratories and facilities for practical instruction in electro-technics. The building is of red brick, four stories above the basement, and fronts 115 feet on the street, running back 84 feet. After the building was well under way, without any solicitation, Mrs. Jane E. Winchester, of New Haven, gave the University $130,000, thus generously bearing the entire cost of the building. In recognition of this the name of Winchester Hall was bestowed upon the building. It was opened for use in January, 1893.

The subject of adding a fourth year to the course has been much discussed by the governing board.

It is felt by many of the wisest and most thoughtful men in the University, both in the school and out of it, that this addition of a fourth year would be a very desirable addition. A large proportion of the graduates of the school, also, as it is believed, are disposed to hope for the addition, and to favor it, as soon as the funds at command may render it practicable.

But it was felt that at present it could not be done, nor until large additions should be made to the endowment of the school.

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[1] Annual Report, 1888, p. 26. In 1872 Pres. Dwight recommended the erection of dormitories for the scientific school.

[2] Annual Report, 1889, p. 31

[3] Annual Report, 1888, p. 27.

mpt was made to get the legislature to revoke the come of the fund from the sale of the land script to tific School. As a result of this in 1887, the legis- t the act appropriating the income to the school and he corporation constituted a binding contract which ed.[1]

Allen, professor of analytical chemistry and metal- 1887, and Messrs. Samuel L. Penfield and Horace L. ted assistant professors to take his place in 1888. yman died on January 29, 1890, having resigned his before. At the beginning of the year 1889-90 Lieut. S. A., was detailed as professor of military science organized military companies in the academic and nts and was succeeded in the fall of 1892 by Capt.

rapid growth of "Sheff," it may be stated that the s was twice as large in 1890 as when Mr. Sheffield amounted to 529 in the academic year 1892-93.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

School, the period has been one of prosperity.[2] The s increased from 117 to 136 in 1890, and diminished he endowment has grown. Mr. Samuel Holmes, in to his previous gift for the professorship of the He- literature.

is K. Jesup, of New York, gave $2,500 for the gen- epartment; the late Albert S. Barnes, of Brooklyn, of New Haven, each gave $1,000 for the same pur- late George Gabriel bequeathed it $5,000, as did arine W. Jarman, of New Haven, who wished to have beneficiary education. For that purpose, Mr. John ford, bequeathed $12,000, and Mr. Walter W. Sey- , gave $9,000.[3]

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visions of an act of Congress, Connecticut received from the for 1888 and an annual increase of $1,000 till $25,000 be reached, for instruction in agriculture, the mechanic arts, the English atical, physical, natural, and economic science. This money in 1863 came to the Scientific School. In 1892, the legislature, ut illegal, measure withdrew the income from the land grant d it on a small institution called the Storrs Agricultural School,

e energy of Prof. Day, a missionary library of great value was ion with the Divinity school. In 1892 Mrs. Caroline E. Wash- Conn., left the Divinity school $25,000.

891 an unknown friend established the Dwight Fellowship (in R. Dwight) with an endowment of $5,000. It is to alternate wship.

A general catalogue of the divinity school, prepared by Prof. George E. Day, was issued in 1889. It shows that since 1822, 1,607 had studied there, of which number 1,129 were still living.[1]

The law department received an endowment of $25,000 from Junius S. Morgan, to establish the Edward J. Phelps professorship of commercial law and contracts.[2] Prof. W. K. Townsend was assigned to the chair, and in 1889 the department was strengthened by the return of Prof. E. J. Phelps, who had been United States minister to Great Britain during the previous four years.

In 1887 a general catalogue of the law school was published, showing that 1,480 men had studied there since its founding in 1824. In the same year the corporation decided to grant the degree of bachelor of civil law on students not candidates for the degree of bachelor of laws, who shall have satisfactorily pursued a prescribed course for two years in elementary and American law, international law, general jurisprudence, political science, and Roman law.

The increase of the school has been rapid in numbers, from 79 in 1886–87, to 106 in 1888–89, and 171 in 1892–93. In 1889 the daughters of the late Lucius F. Robinson, of Hartford, gave $5,000 to commemorate their father's interest in legal studies. This fund has been used to found a lectureship in municipal law, called after William L. Storrs, a former professor in the school and grand-uncle of the donors.

On January 23, 1890, Prof. Johnson T. Platt, one of the the three men who built up the law school in 1869, died suddenly.

A lot of ground on the north side of the Green was bought for the law school in 1890, on which it is hoped soon to erect a building especially for the school.

When President Dwight took office the medical department seemed almost at the point of dissolution. It had but 27 students, and the number had been steadily diminishing for several years. Now there are 76 men in attendance, and the reasonableness of the plan adopted some ten years ago of making the course one of three years and having recitations has become more and more evident.[3] The class of 1892, 22 in number, was larger than any that had graduated since 1831.

In 1888 Dr. Sanford, having been a professor for twenty-five years, resigned, and Dr. Samuel Williston was his successor. During that year an association of the alumni of the school was formed; a catalogue of all the living graduates, between 400 and 500 in number, was issued; and the clinical facilities were increased by the completion of the oper-

[1] A serious fire in the upper part of East Divinity Hall in the fall of 1891 for a short time caused considerable inconvenience till repairs could be made.

[2] J. Pierpont Morgan gave $25,000 more to complete the endowment in 1891.

[3] A brick chemical laboratory, three stories in height, 72 feet in length by 41 in width, was erected back of the main medical building in 1892, at the cost of $35,000.

favorite resort was an "old brown house in the out-
l, which old graduates even yet love to call to mind.
rganized the missionary society, still in successful
st president was George Benton, afterwards mission-
Crete, and from it, through the efforts of Augustus
ass of 1830, came the establishment of the Board of
f the Protestant Episcopal Church. Alexander Jolly,
n Scotland, was given an honorary doctorate in 1826,
held the first commencement when a class of ten
se Rev. Oliver Hopson still survives (1890). In this
ted the Hon. Isaac E. Crary, first president of the
from the Territory and Representative in Congress
ichigan,[2] and to a great extent the organizer of that
l system. In 1829 James W. Gordon, governor of
arles D. Hodges, judge and Congressman from Illi-
John B. Ashe, Congressman from Tennessee, and
ll, judge of Louisiana's supreme bench, were grad-
ile in the class of 1831 was the Rt. Rev. Thomas H.
ansas.

ETIREMENT OF BISHOP BROWNELL.

Brownell retired from the presidency of the college,
all his attention to his diocese. He was the father
re than any one man. "He had watched its progress
l witnessed its success with delight."[3] He was born
s., October 19, 1779. In 1804 he graduated with the
m Union College and was a professor there for some
called in 1819 to the bishopric from a position in
ew York, and continued to fill the episcopal office
uary 13, 1865.[4] His previous experience in teaching
the position of president, which he filled, "ruling in
manner, and by his thorough knowledge and love
is kindly treatment, bridging that gulf which often
between professor and student."[5] Another writer[6]

well balanced and symmetrical, devout without being impas-
l being fanatical, firm and yet without obstinacy. He had a
thought, a judgment that was rarely at fault, a moral charac-
ain, and a religion calm, equable, real, and sincere.

en, in the words of the motto chosen for the college he
clesia et Patria."

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ner's, xi, 604.
England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 401.
sley, Church in Connecticut, ii, 251.
sley, Church in Connecticut, ii, 189-199, 439.
ner's, xi, 601.
p Clark.

On November 11, 1869, a statue of him, designed and modeled by Ives in Rome and cast in bronze at Munich, was unveiled on the Trinity campus. It stands on a pedestal 15 feet high, of Quincy granite, is itself 10 feet 6 inches high, and cost $25,000. The good bishop is represented in his episcopal robes; his left hand clasps a prayer-book; his right hand is outstretched towards the college he loved, invoking perpetual benedictions upon it from heaven.[1]

PRESIDENT N. S. WHEATON (1831–1837).

Upon Bishop Brownell's retirement, it was natural that such "an early, steadfast, and liberal friend of the institution" as Dr. Wheaton should be chosen president.[2] He had been one of the original corporators and was rector of Christ Church, Hartford, before being called to be president. A graduate of Yale in 1814, he taught and studied theology and returned to Connecticut in 1819. During his pastorate in Hartford he aided in the erection of a handsome church. He served as president for six years and then left to accept a call to a church in New Orleans.[3] During his presidency the college prospered. Two professorships were partly endowed, one, the Hobart Professorship in 1835, with $20,000 from citizens of New York. Of this, Trinity Church gave $5,000 for five scholarships. A little earlier, the Seabury Professorship was also endowed with the same amount, $20,000.

Dr. Wheaton established a preparatory school in connection with Washington College and adorned and beautified the grounds.[4] During the whole of this early period of the life of the college, it was very valuable to the Protestant Episcopal Church because of the young[5] men sent out into its ministry.

In 1844 Rev. Dr. Wheaton resigned his church, and after a year spent in Europe he returned to Hartford with broken health. A few years later he retired to Marbledale, his native place, and being a bachelor with ample means he was a great benefactor to the church there. In March, 1862, he died, leaving Trinity College $10,000 for a chapel and a residuary legacy, which amounted to as much more, for the general fund. In speaking of his death Bishop Williams said:

> For myself, I desire always to remember him as I first knew him, when he occupied the presidency of the college, as the clear and able expounder of the word of God, the patient and accurate instructor, the well-balanced Christian man, carrying under a reserved and sometimes cold exterior an unselfish, warm, and generous heart.[6]

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[1] Memorial of proceedings at unveiling of statue.
[2] New England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 463.
[3] Beardsley, Church in Connecticut, II, 426.
[4] Brocklesby, College Book, p. 267.
[5] Beardsley, Church in Connecticut, II, 294.
[6] Beardsley, Church in Connecticut, II, 426, 427.

PRESIDENT SILAS TOTTEN (1837–1848).

ent Wheaton left the college, Rev. Silas Totten, D. D.,[1] Union College in 1830 and professor of mathematics and phy in Washington College since 1833, was chosen pres- Totten had "proved himself eminently successful in his collegiate instruction,"[2] and during his presidency a $12,000 was raised for tuition by means of a subscription it the diocese. Under his presidency also, the citizens of a second dormitory in 1845. This was called Brownell first president.[3] He also secured the endowment lete the Seabury professorship fund from Nathan War- . Y., and under him the college[4] received its present y. On August 2, 1848, he resigned his presidency and ssor of moral and intellectual philosophy, belles lettres, William and Mary College, Virginia. There he em- re in preparing a history of that venerable institution.[5] ame chancellor of the University of Iowa, which post he . Dr. Totten died at Lexington, Ky., on October 7, 1873.

TRINITY COLLEGE.

petition of the corporation, acting at the desire of the islature changed the name of the institution from Wash- y College. This change was to avoid confusion arising at there were other Washington colleges in the United test forever the faith of its founders and their zeal for lory and honor of the one, holy, and undivided Trinity,"[7] for the college a name, which at Cambridge, England,[8] associated with sound learning." At the same time, the ganized into a house of convocation and made "a con- the academic body." The trustees also organized the s, consisting of six senior and six junior fellows,[9] who rs of arts, appointed by the corporation, and to them is perintendence of the strictly academic business of the

convocation consists "of the fellows and professors of with all persons who have received any academic de-

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Schoharie County, N. Y., March 26, 1804.
rch in Connecticut, II, 314.
504.
p. 207.
136.
Magazine, May, 1886, p. 403.
rch in Connecticut, II.
are elected by corporation; junior fellows are appointed by cor- ation of house of convocation. (Gen. Cat., 1862.)

gree whatever in the same, except such as may lawfully be deprived of their privileges," and it transacts such business as the trustees lay before it.[1]

From 1849 to 1889, the bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church was made *ex officio* chancellor and president of the board of trustees, and the official hierarchy was completed by a board of visitors, first appointed in 1859. In 1857 trustees from other States than Connecticut were admitted, and in 1883 the charter was amended so that three of the trustees might be elected by the alumni.[2]

SOCIAL LIFE PREVIOUS TO 1859.

Early in the history of the college many Southern students came and imparted a different influence from that at most New England colleges.[3] As early as 1834 there was a student corps known as the Washington College Archers, who paraded in black and white uniforms on the Hartford green and made excursions to Springfield. The sophomores, as in every other college, attended to the burning of conic sections; the juniors had their exhibition; the seniors their class day, modeled on Harvard's. Commencements[4] down to 1875 were held in Christ Church, and after Bishop Brownell became old the commencement processions on their way to church always passed his house and the band played "Auld Lang Syne."

One of the characters of the college was Prof. Jim, an old negro janitor who served the college over fifty years and of whom the students made much.[5]

In June, 1845, the Beta of Connecticut of the venerable *Φ B K* fraternity was established at Trinity. It still prospers and takes the first one-third of the class in scholarship. Of late years an imitation of *Φ B K* has sprung up at Trinity. The name of this society is *K B Φ*, its motto: "Probability the Guide of Life," and its membership the last third of the class.

In 1832 a local society, known as *Φ K*, was founded with the mystic motto "Di Chado." In 1877 it became a chapter of the *Δ Δ Φ* fraternity, and ranks high among the secret societies at Trinity. It owns a superb site on Vernon street, near the college buildings, on which it has lately built an elegant chapter house. Its old rival, the local society of *B B*, was founded in 1842. It adopted the same policy as *Φ K*, and became a chapter of the *Ψ Υ* fraternity in 1880. It possesses a fine chapter house on Washington street, to which the only drawback is its distance from the college.

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[1] Scribner's, XI, 604. Title changed to Association of the Alumni in 1883.

[2] Catalogues of Trinity College.

[3] Scribner's, XI, 604.

[4] For some time these were held on the first Thursday in August.

[5] Scribner's, XI, 606.

STUDENTS.

In 1833 the library of the college contained 5,000 volumes; those of the societies 2,500 more.[1] In 1840 tuition was $33 annually; board for the thirty-nine weeks of the year, $85; room rent, $19.50. Of the 115 alumni up to that time 42 had become ministers.[2] The number of students did not greatly increase; but many fine men were graduated. The class of 1832 contained the Rev. E. E. Beardsley, the church historian; the Rev. John W. French, professor at West Point; the Hon. Robert Treat Paine, Congressman from South Carolina; and the Hon. John S. Phelps, governor of Missouri. A year later were graduated the Hon. Robert W. Nicholls, supreme court judge in Louisiana; the Hon. I. Nevett Steele, LL. D., minister to Venezuela; and the Rev. C. M. Butler, professor in the Philadelphia Divinity School.

In 1834 were graduated the Rev. William B. Ashley, professor in the Nashota Theological School, and, a year later, the late Archbishop Bayley of the Roman Catholic Church and Bishop Williams, of Connecticut. In 1837 Dr. Pliny A. Jewett, of the Yale Medical School, and the Rev. Abner Jackson, later president of Trinity, graduated. Robert B. Fairbairn, president of St. Stephen's College, and Judge Dwight W. Pardee, of Connecticut, were members of the class of 1840. The Rev. T. R. Pynchon, later president of Trinity; Henry H. Brownell, "the battle laureate of America;" and the Hon. T. L. Harris, Congressman from Illinois, were graduated in 1841. In 1843 were graduated the Rev. T. S. Preston, vicar-General of New York; Judge W. E. Curtis, of New York; the Revs. J. W. Bradin and F. J. Clerc, both rectors of Burlington College. Bishop J. A. Paddock, of Washington, is an alumnus of 1845, and J. B. Wakefield, Congressman from Minnesota, were graduated with Malcolm Douglass, president of Norwich University, Leonard Kip, and the Hon. H. J. Scudder, Congressman from New York, in 1846. In 1848 Bishop B. H. Paddock, of Massachusetts, was graduated.

PRESIDENT JOHN WILLIAMS (1848–'53).

This venerable man, now the senior bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, was less than 31 years of age when chosen president, having been born at Deerfield, Mass., August 30, 1817. He had spent the first two years of his collegiate life at Harvard, but then came to Washington College and graduated there in 1835. He had already "given ample promise of extraordinary abilities," and was, October 29, 1851, consecrated assistant bishop of Connecticut. The library fund was increased and the course of instruction developed during his administration. He also gave theological instruction, from which grew the

[1] Darby and Dwight's Gazetteer, in Barbour's Historical Collections, p. 38.
[2] Dwight's Connecticut, p. 448.

Berkeley Divinity School. As the cares of his diocese increased and the new divinity school at Middletown needed his presence, he resigned his presidency of Trinity in 1853.[1]

PRESIDENT DANIEL R. GOODWIN (1853–'60).

During this presidency the Scovill Professorship of Chemistry and Natural Science was founded, for which J. L. M. Scovill gave $10,000, his brother, W. H. Scovill, $5,000, and Scovill M. Buckingham $3,000. In 1856 Mrs. Sarah Gregor of Norwalk, Conn., founded the Brownell professorship. John P. Elton gave $5,000 for the library, and a special effort to add $100,000 to the college's permanent fund was crowned with success, nearly the whole amount being from Connecticut men.[2] Dr. Goodwin is described as "preëminent as a logician and a man of high scholarly attainments."[3] He was born in North Berwick, Me., April 12, 1811, graduated at Bowdoin in 1832, and was professor of modern languages there from 1835 to 1853. From 1860 to 1868 he was provost of the University of Pennsylvania, and after 1865 professor of systematic theology in the Protestant Episcopal Divinity School at Philadelphia. President Goodwin died in April, 1890.

PRESIDENT SAMUEL ELIOT (1860–'64).

The next president was born December 22, 1821, and graduated from Harvard in 1839. He is described as a "gentleman of marked intellectual and social culture."[3] The civil war, occurring during his term of office, crippled the college by depriving it of its Southern students. Since his resignation of the presidency he has been principal of the girl's high school at Boston, Mass., from 1872 to 1876, and superintendent of public schools in that city from 1878 to 1880.

PRESIDENT JOHN B. KERFOOT (1864–'66).

Bishop Kerfoot was born in Dublin, Ireland, March 1, 1816, and was brought to this country when 3 years old. He studied theology with Dr. Muhlenberg, and was president of St. James College, Maryland, from 1842 to 1864, when he came to Trinity. In 1866 he was chosen the first bishop of Pittsburg and resigned his presidency. He died July 10, 1881.

PROF. JOHN BROCKLESBY, LL. D., ACTING PRESIDENT (1866–'67).

Prof. Brocklesby, who held the chair of mathematics and natural philosophy from 1842 to 1882, acted as president for the next year. He was born in West Bromwich, England, October 8, 1811, and died in

[1] New England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 404; College Book, p. 268.
[2] Beardsley Church in Connecticut, II, 382.
[3] College Book, p. 268.

21, 1889. He graduated at Yale in 1835, studied law, or in his alma mater, and then was called, after begin- e of law, to his lifelong position. Prof. Hart in his com- dress delivered before the alumni said he was "faithful every duty, a kind and sympathetic friend of the stu- nd earnest counsellor of his colleagues, an honored and n." His long connection with Trinity made him "es- the alumni for many kind qualities of head and heart."[1]

PRESIDENT ABNER JACKSON (1867–'74).

ckson, the only one who has died in office, was born at a., November 4, 1811. He studied first at Washington lvania, and then at Washington (Trinity) College, Con- raduated from the latter in 1837. He was professor of aphysics from 1840 to 1858, when he was chosen presi- College. From thence he was recalled, as president of , and died in Hartford April 19, 1874. His adminis- phatically a successful one. He was "a determined and with great breadth of intellect and liberal culture; he fitted to occupy the position he had filled with marked and with manners most affable and winning. Through became more identified with Hartford and was at the ing itself favorably felt among similar institutions with s the president cultivated the most friendly terms."[2] e was a marked increase in students, the number reach- first time in 1871–'72. In 1869 the statue of Bishop iously spoken of, was given by Gordon W. Burnham, is son-in-law. In 1871 Mr. Chester Adams, of Hartford, about $65,000, the largest gift from any individual up Under his presidency, the site of the college was himself sent to England, where he secured elaborate uildings.[2]

THE NEW SITE.

r much deliberation, the trustees accepted the offer of ford, which wished to buy the college campus for a large ght offer it to the State as a site for the new capitol. The l the right to occupy for some five or six years so much gs as it should not be necessary to remove. In 1873 a acres, a mile from the old campus, was purchased. This ocky Hill, a ridge of trap running southward from the ast lies the city; on the west, "beyond an escarpment fields stretch away" to far-off hills.

Book, p. 268.
r's, xi, 610.
gland Magazine, May, 1886, p. 404; College Book, p. 269.

PRESENT TRINITY COLLEGE, MAIN BUILDINGS.

ORIGINAL PLAN OF TRINITY COLLEGE WHEN COMPLETED.

The design is intended to be symmetrical and does not strain for effect. "The style is simple in character and free from excessive ornamentation, presenting picturesque effects by boldness of detail and grouping of prominent features, as well as the introduction of emblematical sculpture at objective points." The original plans made by Mr. Burgess, the eminent English architect, were intended to supply the needs of the college for all coming time. Mr. J. H. Kimball, of Hartford, was sent abroad to acquaint himself with the minutiæ of the work, and several changes in the plan were made; among them were a change from four to three quadrangles. The design was to have a great quadrangle, flanked by a smaller one for students on the north and another for professors on the south. The north quadrangle was to contain a chapel and dining hall; the south, a library and museum. On the west side were to be blocks of buildings for dormitory and lecture rooms. A theater for public occasions was to be on the north side of the north quadrangle and the observatory in a tower in the northwest corner.[1]

The grounds were laid out by Fred. Law Olmsted and ground broken July 1, 1875. It was not to be expected that this great mass of buildings could be built at once, and only the west side of the great "quad" is completed. The architecture is in the French secular Gothic style; the material of the buildings, brown Portland stone, trimmed with white Ohio sandstone.[2]

PROGRESS—1849–'74.

Among the students during this period were, in the class of 1849, Dr. O. A. Lindsley, of the Yale Medical School; in that of 1851, the Hon. C. J. Hoadley, State librarian of Connecticut, and Governor C. C. Van-Zandt, of Rhode Island. In 1852, Bishop John W. Beckwith, of Georgia, was graduated, as was Bishop David B. Knickerbocker, of Indiana, a year later. Another Bishop, the Rt. Rev. John Scarborough, of New Jersey, is an alumnus of 1854, and the class of 1857 adds still another in Bishop William W. Niles, of New Hampshire, called to his present post from the chair of Latin in Trinity. The Rev. E. C. Bolles is a member of the class of 1855 and the Rev. G. S. Mallory of that of 1858, as are Dr. James E. Mears, of Philadelphia, the late Prof. H. H. Prince, of the University of Virginia, and the Rev. W. H. Vibbert, formerly of the Berkely Divinity School. The first professor of Trinity to die in office was the Rev. E. E. Johnson, of the class of 1859. One of his associates says of him, "the brilliancy and enthusiasm of his genius was only equaled by his untiring devotion to duty."[3] Other graduates of note before 1860 were John F. Mines, better known as Felix Oldboy, of the class of 1854, Prof. A. A. Benton, of the University of the South, and Pres. E.

[1] Report Committee on Education, 1874, p. 48; College Book, p. 273

[2] New England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 407.

[3] Perry American Episcopal Church (Prof. S. Hart), II, 538, 547.

the National Deaf Mute College of Washington, in
n. Wm. Hamersley, of the Connecticut courts, in 1858.
aduated E. V. Stoddard, M. D., professor in the Buf-
ool, and a year later another physician became an
). Cowling, professor at the Louisville Medical School.
D. L. Peck, formerly professor in the University of
ree years later, the Rev. C. T. Olmsted, formerly pro-
hen's College. The Rev. Samuel Hart, professor of
who is said to be the highest authority on liturgy in
piscopal Church and to whom the author is indebted
is a graduate of 1866.
those who have been on the faculty graduated in three
the Rev. Henry Ferguson in 1868, G. O. Holbrooke
Rev. F. S. Luther in 1870.
of Spokane, was graduated in 1864; Bishop Nichols,
1870; Prof. J. H. Barbour, of the Berkeley Divinity
E. M. Hyde, of Lehigh, in 1873.
nained much the same.[2] The *E* Chapter of the $\Delta\ \Psi$
tablished at Trinity in 1850. They have flourished
chapel-like chapter house of granite near the college.
was at Trinity from 1869 to 1876. As to athletics,
ly, and in 1858 sent a crew to a regatta at Worcester,
Brown, Harvard, and Yale. In 1873 it had a crew in
e race at Springfield, and again in 1874 at Saratoga.
e crew died while in training, and so Trinity did not
ever, rowing has entirely died out, as the college has
from the river.[3]
urnal at an early date, called the Cabinet, and the Tab-
d in 1869 as a monthly. As such it proved successful,
made biweekly. It is noted for its sprightly verse.

RESIDENT T. R. PYNCHON (1874–'83).

as born in New Haven, January 19, 1823, and gradu-
ton (Trinity) College in 1841. He studied theology
some years, and from 1854 to the time of his becom-
was Scovill professor at Trinity. He was chosen
ber 7, 1874, and at once "entered vigorously upon
iding the college with a new home."[4] He held office
resigned, but continues to hold the chair of moral

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ding the proof of this chapter.
lion many brave men from Trinity fought. Among them was
fell before Petersburg.

gazine, May, 1886, p. 105.

NEW BUILDINGS.

In the autumn of 1878 two blocks of buildings were dedicated. They bear the names of two of the old buildings, Jarvis and Seabury halls, and were erected as parts of the west side of the quadrangle. Under Dr. Pynchon's direction the plans had been modified so that these buildings might be sufficient for the present needs of the college, and in them provision was made for lecture rooms,[1] chapel, library, and cabinet, as well as for students' rooms. Jarvis Hall contains 44 suites of rooms for students and junior professors. Each suite consists of three rooms, a study and two bedrooms, and runs through the building, thus giving plenty of air and light.[2] Jarvis Hall is three stories high and divided into sections by brick party walls.[3] The rooms have cheerful fireplaces. Seabury Hall contains the lecture rooms, which are "finished, as is all the rest of the buildings, in ash and with massive Ohio-stone mantelpieces," the chapel, and other public rooms. The chapel is arranged choirwise and has accommodations for 200; it is adorned with handsome woodwork, and is provided with a fine organ. The museum contains a full set of Ward's casts of fossils, a large collection of mounted skeletons, and cases filled with minerals and shells. The library contains 34,000 books and 22,000 pamphlets, and to it large and valuable additions have lately been made, so that a special building will soon be needed. The physical and chemical laboratories were in Seabury Hall[2] till five years ago. During Dr. Pynchon's presidency the fund of Trinity received a large increase from Col. C. H. Northam, of Hartford. He endowed a professorship with $50,000 in 1882, gave $75,000 for the general fund, and built Northam towers, connecting the two halls, in the same year. Northam towers are four stories high and contain students' apartments.

PRESIDENT G. W. SMITH (1883).[4]

The president now holding office, the Rev. George W. Smith, was born at Catskill, N. Y., November 21, 1836, and graduated from Hobart College in 1857. He taught, studied theology, and, during the civil war, was clerk in the Navy Department. From 1865 to 1871, he was a chaplain in the U. S. Navy, and from 1871 till his election to the presidency, he was engaged in the work of a pastor. On taking office, he was "welcomed to his duties with much enthusiasm."

Both in 1873 and in 1878 two men had received the degree of bachelor of science; but, with those exceptions, all graduates had gone through the regular academic course. In 1884, however, considerable

[1] New England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 405.
[2] New England Magazine, May, 1886, p. 407.
[3] College Book, p. 274.
[4] In 1888 he was chosen assistant bishop of Ohio, but declined.

JARVIS HALL OF SCIENCE—TRINITY COLLEGE.

President Totten and Prof. Duncan L. Stewart,[1] both from Union, caused great attention to be paid to political economy, constitutional history, and international law. Bishop Williams brought in greater attention to classics and made the study of languages receive equal attention with that given to philosophy and science. President Goodwin gave an impetus to modern languages; President Eliot to history; President Jackson to philosophy. Within the last four years in President Smith's administration, the number of elective courses has been greatly increased, and now about two-fifths of the work of the Juniors and three-fifths of the work of the Seniors is in elective studies.

In 1885, Louis M. Cheeseman, PH. D., professor of physics, died, after a service of two years. This brilliant and short-lived scholar was the second of the faculty to die in office.[2]

Examinations for admission to Trinity are held at Hartford, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Chicago, and San Francisco. The requirements for the course in arts consist of Latin, Greek, mathematics, and English. For the courses in letters and science and in letters alone they are similar, with the omission of Greek. For the course in science, no Greek and less Latin are required, but the amount of mathematics and English is increased and history of the United States is added.

The first recitation on Monday morning, throughout the course, is devoted to religious studies. The courses of study are comprehensive and thorough, and in addition to the required amount, certain voluntary studies are provided, with very good results. The year begins about the middle of September and closes with commencement in the end of June. There is a Christmas recess of two or three weeks and a spring one of ten days. Honors are given to students who receive an average of nine-tenths in the marks for their course.

A list of students attaining the honor grade in any college year is published in the catalogue of the following year, and a student attaining the honor grade in all his studies throughout the college course receives the title of Optimus. Students whose marks during the course amount to 75 per cent of those attainable, receive appointments for commencement.

TRINITY OF TO-DAY.

The college library now has a fund of some $30,000. Tuition is $100, room rent from $25 to $100. Students in need of assistance receive aid from beneficiary funds, there being some fifty of such scholarships. There is also a free loan library, endowed by Rev. J. G. Jacocks, of the

[1] Professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, 1833–1855, and emeritus till his death in 1880.

[2] Perry American Episcopal Church, II, 538–547.

The degree of M. A. is given in course after three
es giving evidence of advanced work.
lest prize was founded by Miles A. Tuttle, of Hart-
f $30 and is given for the best essay on a prescribed
al prizes of $30 and $20 are given for theses on sub-
nts, in continuance of a custom began by the literary
o medals yearly for writing and pronouncing English
e is given for the best "version" into English of a
declamation of it. Other prizes are given of $25 for
athematics, $35 and $25 for history, $15 and $10 for
ion. Mrs. James Goodwin, in 1885, founded two Greek
d $25, and Dr. Charles D. Scudder and Edward M.
York City, have offered an English literature prize of
f 1885 has provided for prizes in the modern languages.
Holland, daughter of Bishop Brownell has by a legacy
three scholarships in memory of her husband, having
ncome of about $600. During the past year provision
or a fellowship by a legacy of $10,000 from Henry E.

at Trinity is very pleasant, as all the students live
rman club gives several dances during the winter, the
oncerts in neighboring towns, the athletic association
otball and baseball are played, and plays given in the
1879 the *A. N.* Chapter of *J. K. E.* was founded at
five fraternities there then. To these have been added
year, chapters of the *Σ. A. E* and *Φ. Γ. Δ.*
student fell off just before President Smith's acces-
ere but 66 in 1884.[1] Now, however, they have greatly
mount to 122 (1892-93). When the last quinquennial
sued in 1890, 1,409 had received degrees from Trinity,
been honorary. Of the alumni, numbering 1,005 in all,
354 had become clergymen.
e of instruction unites the conservatism of experience
to the needs of modern scholarship, all under the
fluence of religious nurture; her well-stocked library
m, with her unrivaled accommodations for students,
er work, so that she is, in reality as well as in name, in
her members as well as in her profession, a home for
Its site and surroundings are attractive, its students
elation between teacher and scholar peculiarly inti-
its present vigorous management and able faculty, a
e seems destined for Trinity College.
culty consists of President G. W. Smith, Hobart pro-
ysics; the Rev. T. R. Pynchon, Brownell professor of

[1] In 1852 there were 79.

PRESIDENT'S HOUSE—TRINITY COLLEGE.

moral philosophy; the Rev. Samuel Hart, professor of Latin; the Rev. I. T. Beckwith, professor of Greek; the Rev. F. S. Luther, Seabury professor of mathematics and astronomy; the Rev. Henry Ferguson, Northam professor of history and political science; Charles F. Johnson, professor of English literature; the Rev. John J. McCook, professor of modern languages; Wm. L. Robb, professor of physics; R. B. Riggs, Scovill professor of chemistry and natural science.

Among the lecturers is Charles Dudley Warner on English literature. Recent alumni are Judge Joseph Buffington of the U. S. Court, and W. E. Curtis, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, in 1875, Richard E. Burton, in 1883, and Prof. C. M. Andrews, of Bryn Mawr College, in 1884.

Chapter VII.

WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.[1]

MIDDLETOWN.

On the west bank of the Connecticut River and rising high on terraces above it, stands the pleasant city of Middletown, embowered in trees. It is a quiet and quaint place of slow growth, but with a most charming population and most delightful surroundings. All three of the Connecticut colleges have lovely sites, but Wesleyan's is loveliest of all. About 150 feet above the river is High street, and on this street on the summit of one of the terraces are the buildings of Wesleyan. From the top of Judd Hall the eye ranges over the country and sees a most exquisite view, said to be the finest in the lovely valley of the Connecticut south of Mount Holyoke. Across the river is Portland, with its famous quarries furnishing brownstone for city houses, and the whole neighborhood is very rich in minerals.[2]

"THE AMERICAN LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, AND MILITARY ACADEMY."

In 1824, Capt. Alden Partridge, who had formerly been superintendent of West Point, opened this institution at Middletown. He purchased a site of 13 acres, fronting for 634 feet on High street. The curriculum was intended to be similar to that of the United States Military Academy and the citizens becoming interested subscribed liberally towards it. The foundation of the Lyceum[3] was laid October 24, 1824, with masonic rites, two substantial stone buildings were erected, and there was great success at first. On August 22, 1825, the academy opened and the first catalogue showed 19 officers and 281 cadets from nearly every State. The old laboratory of Wesleyan was built for a gun house, and the boarding hall was also erected in 1825. The discipline grew lax, complaints of disorderly conduct were frequent, the number of students fell off, and an attempt in 1828 to obtain power to give degrees failed to receive the assent of the legislature. As a result of this, Capt. Partridge removed the academy to Norwich, Vermont, in 1829.[4] His departure left the buildings vacant and in the hands of the trustees, by whom they were offered for sale.

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[1] The illustrations of Wesleyan University building are from photographs furnished by Mr. H. B. Slayback, Class of 1890.

[2] College Book, p. 301.

[3] Now, since 1871, South College.

[4] College Book p. 303; Field's Middlesex, p. 108; Annals of Wesleyan University p. lxxx.

GENERAL VIEW OF WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.

Chapter VII.

WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.[1]

MIDDLETOWN.

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LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, AND MILITARY ACADEMY.[3]

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Wesleyan University building are from photographs furnished
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ath College
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GENERAL VIEW OF WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.

METHODIST EFFORTS FOR A COLLEGE.

At an early period the Methodists of the United States founded Cokesbury College, named from the two bishops, Coke and Asbury, at Abingdon, Md. After its discontinuance on account of the burning of the buildings, no second attempt was made till Asbury College was founded at Baltimore in 1816. This also failed soon and the Methodists had no institution for higher education under their control. Several successful Methodist academies were in operation and the need of something higher was felt. At a meeting of the trustees of the Military Academy after Capt. Partridge left in 1829, one of them jokingly said that if the Methodists were thinking of founding a college they would sell them their buildings for $4,000.

This chance remark was told to the Rev. Laban Clark, D. D., who was in Middletown soon thereafter. With an instant perception of the great opportunity thus open, he at once notified the trustees that he would accept the offer and be responsible for the money himself. Following up this far-seeing determination he placed the proposals of the trustees before the New York and New England conferences of the Methodist Church and urged on them the necessity of founding a college and the opening for founding one at Middletown. They assented to the first proposition, and the two conferences appointed a joint committee, which, following the plan Trinity had adopted a few years before, issued a circular inviting different towns to compete by subscriptions for the privilege of becoming the site of the college. Troy, N. Y., Wilbraham, Mass., where the Methodists already had a flourishing academy, and Bridgeport, Conn., made liberal offers; but Middletown's promises were more than any of the others. The trustees of the old academy there offered the buildings and nearly 15 acres of land as a free gift on the sole condition that they be used forever for a college and that $40,000 for endowment be first raised. The proposition was accepted and citizens, consoled for the loss of Washington College some five years before, raised $18,000 before the end of 1829. The gift of the trustees is estimated at $30,000, and of the amount raised by subscription $10,000 was voted in town meeting. The report of this committee was unanimously accepted by the conferences in the spring of 1830, and it was determined to constitute the board of trustees: one-third from each of the two conferences and one-third from the trustees of the Military Academy.[1]

WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.[2]

At the May session of the legislature in 1831, the charter of "Wesleyan University" was granted. The property, by the act of incorporation, is vested in the trustees, and these were to serve for life or good

[1] Wesleyan University Annals, LXXXI, College Book, p. 305.

[2] Edward Cooke, D. D., in "Early Schools of Methodism," by A. W. Cummings, pp. 169–186.

vacancies among their number. The election of the nt of instruction, and determining of all questions of l discipline were vested jointly in the trustees and an visitors appointed annually by the New York and erences and such other conferences as should after- A special provision was inserted "that subscribing shall never be a condition of admission to students, ibility to the president, professors, or other officers." g of the joint board was held in the lyceum on August year before the granting of the charter. It was then college in August, 1831, and to have in the meantime ol in the building, conducted by Rev. W. C. Larra- Bowdoin. Other regulations were made; salaries of e fixed in May, 1831, at $850 and two-thirds of the ed the total did not exceed $1,500. The president 100; tuition was to be $6 for each daily study; room cording to location; fee for graduation, $5. It was arges. So Rev. Laban Clark saw the desire of his l and the college founded. That it was founded was is vigor and enthusiasm, and his prudence, energy, urce were for many years of inestimable value in all corporation."[1]

ESIDENT WILBUR FISK (1831–'39).

eting of the joint board, Rev. Wilbur Fisk, D. D., the Wesleyan Academy at Wilbraham, was chosen w institution, which he served with faithfulness till ary 22, 1839. He had been identified with the enter- ry first, and fittingly lies in the college cemetery l west of the building, two years before his death. s born at Brattleboro, Vt., on August 31, 1792, was own University in 1815, studied law, but later entered was made principal of the Wilbraham Academy in

n could not have been more happy than it was in s first president," says Dr. Field, and we echo that was found a rare union of sweetness and strength, abilities and "a woman's delicacy and quickness of pathy was large and ready, his temper gentle and al influence over the students great. To him chiefly sleyan successfully passed through its first years of countless difficulties. He gave the best energies of to the college, performing an astonishing amount of ble in health. For Wesleyan he traveled over the

[1] niversity Annals, LXXXII, College Book, p. 306.

Northern and Eastern States to secure an endowment, went to Europe to procure apparatus, attended personally to the minutest details of management, and into the hearts of the friends of the college he "infused something of his own calm confidence and quiet energy." When he assumed office he was already known outside, as well as within the Methodist church, as a cultured scholar, an able thinker, and a finished writer and speaker. He added to this reputation by his conduct in the presidency. His "pure and lofty piety" and his winning manners "drew the students to him and made him beloved, while his tact and prudence, high administrative ability, his thorough culture and extensive reputation, and his untiring efforts" for Wesleyan made it successful and gave it character. When he became president, he found the board of trustees and visitors "all eager to establish a college, but none knowing how that was to be done and few of them having any very intelligent idea of a college at all." Consequently it was left almost entirely to him to determine the course of study and to perfect the details of administration, both of which he did well. He made modern languages and physical sciences more important than in most other colleges of the period, thus anticipating in some respects the college policy of to-day. It was his idea to classify students by advancement, more than by the length of their residence, and he thought that, by adopting this plan, which was also tried at the University of Vermont, class feeling would be done away, so certificates and modified diplomas were given to those not going through the entire course. The students did not feel satisfied with this arrangement, and in 1836, they were arranged in classes, as at other colleges.

President Fisk's labors ceased only with death, and just before that, he committed the college to the care of the church, saying, "I give it as my dying request that they nurse the Wesleyan University, that they must exert themselves to sustain and carry it forward."[1]

BEGINNING OF WESLEYAN.

Though no professional schools have ever been introduced to merit the name of university,[2] and though the name Wesleyan is ambiguous, because of the rise of many of the colleges so named in the West, this rather unfortunately-named institution has from the first held high rank among American colleges. It was opened on September 21, 1831, and is the oldest Methodist college in America. Dickinson and Randolph-Macon were chartered earlier, but the former was not at the time under the control of the Methodists, and the latter was not yet in operation. A strong faculty was provided. Besides President Fisk, there were Augustus William Smith, professor of mathematics; Rev. John Mott

[1] Field's Middlesex, p. 110; Alumni Rec. Hist. Sketch; College Book, p. 307; Annals Wesleyan University, pp. 83-91; Barnard, American Journal of Education, VI, 297-310; Prentice's "Life of Fisk;" Olin's "Life of Fisk."

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1883-84, p. 39.

ancient languages; Rev. Jacob T. Huber, professor
es; and William Magoun, tutor.

a Latin salutatory and some other addresses by
naugural address of the president[1] were delivered.
rporation, already referred to, as to classifying stu-
May 13, 1831, and reads thus:

ned in the university shall be divided into departments and
respective professors in their departments shall be classified
gree of advancement in that particular study, without any
ies or to the time they shall have been members of the uni-
all have gone through a thorough course of studies they shall
ors of regular graduates.[2]

w 48 students enrolled, of whom 1 came from Colum-
nilton. Of these students, 40 lived in the dormitory,
rudential committee of the corporation voted "to
a suitable compensation." Five departments were
ral science and belles-lettres; (2) mathematics, nat-
d astronomy; (3) natural sciences, *i. e.*, chimistry
), geology, and mineralogy; (4) ancient languages;
ges. This system of study was continued till 1847.

on on Monday morning after 6 a. m. prayers and
as, until 1856, on "evidences of Christianity and
signed to fill up the vacant hours of the Sabbath."
5 p. m. were conducted by the president; morning

832, the joint board resolved "that none but male
be admitted as students of this institution."[3] At
school was proposed, and a year later, a law school
ough neither of these plans was adopted. On
seal was adopted and a strange departure, but one
rly Methodist colleges, determined on:

cessary arrangements for connecting mechanical and agricul-
ourse of instruction be made, each student to labor at least
he system to be introduced at once, so that parents may have
sical as well as the intellectual and moral education will be

continued till 1839[4] and then given up, as it did not

y years, there was no lack of interest in the college;
Fisk said, "contributions for endowment were as
ge of a miser's purse." There were, however, faith-
s, to whose untiring devotion and efforts much of

1.

2.

ded August 25, 1835. It was doubtless first passed on account
si.

y Annals, pp. 83 *et seq.*

the present success is due.[1] One hundred and fifteen students graduated in the six classes leaving under President Fisk. The first commencement was on August 28, 1833, on the first day of the fall term. A procession, headed by a band and the sheriff of the county, went to the Methodist Episcopal Church, where the class received diplomas and exercises were delivered, which were "honorably spoken of by the public." Up to 1843, when commencement was put at the end of the college year, pieces for commencement were assigned without regard to scholarship, and strange pieces some of them were: Latin, Greek, French, German, and Spanish orations, eulogies, poems, dialogues, original drama, sketches, philosophical orations, and valedictories were all delivered from time to time.[2]

In 1833 the boarding hall was bought for College Commons and in 1837 the president's house was built at a cost of $7,000.

In 1839 the first observatory, a small, octagonal, wooden structure, was built, and in the same year was erected the new boarding hall, which, since 1868, has been the observatory.

In 1836 we learn the library had an "accession of more than 1,000 volumes of the first scientific and classical works, selected in Europe by the president, with great care,"[3] and in the same year a telescope was purchased of M. Lerebours, of Paris, for 6,960 francs, and 100 philosophical and astronomical instruments were procured. The catalogue proudly states that the "entire apparatus is believed to be as complete and useful for the purposes of instruction as any in the country."

In 1837 was purchased "Russell's magnificent orrery,[2] a new and unrivaled instrument and the only one of the kind in the world."

In 1838 Dr. Fisk obtained a grant of $10,000 from the legislature, and, at the time of his death, the number of students was nearly 175.

PRESIDENT STEPHEN OLIN (1839–1841; 1842–1851).

On August 6, 1839, Rev. Stephen Olin, who was then traveling in Europe for his health, was chosen president and nominally filled the office for two years. At the end of that time, he resigned through continued ill-health; but, a year later, his health was restored and, his successor resigning his office, President Olin was again chosen, and Prof. A. W. Smith was made vice president, to relieve him of some of the work. He was born at Leicester, Vt., March 2, 1797, and in 1820, graduated at the head of his class at Middlebury College. His excessive study in college broke down his health, which ever continued weak. After graduation, he taught in South Carolina and became a Methodist minister. From 1826 to 1833 he was professor of Belles Letters in Franklin College, Georgia, and then from 1834 to 1837 he was

[1] College Book, 346.
Wesleyan University Annals.
Alumni Rec. Hist. Sketch.

and preached till 1854, when he was made president of Genesee College, Lima, N. Y., whence he was called by his alma mater. He possessed in the highest degree power to arouse curiosity and stimulate thought. His industry was tireless, his devotion to the welfare of the college hearty, and, with his skill and popularity as an instructor, made his administration in many respects a successful one.[1] After resigning his presidency he remained several years as professor, then preached again, and finally became president of the Northwestern University at Evanston, Ill., where he died May 7, 1890, of heart failure. The buildings of the university received great increase under him. In his administration also occurred the rebellion, when 11 per cent of the graduates and 30 per cent of those in college during that time fought for their country.[2] Of these 18 were killed.

RICH HALL.

The old college buildings are of the plainest possible architecture, but have "an honest solidity, not altogether unattractive."

As students increased, the college, which had been twenty-five years without a new building, needed more room. In particular, a library was greatly desired, and there was great rejoicing when Isaac Rich, in 1864, offered to build a library, if the alumni would raise $25,000 for a library fund. Twenty-seven thousand five hundred dollars were speedily raised, and Rich Hall was opened at commencement, 1868. The exterior is marred by a broken-backed roof and absurd architectural decorations. The inside, however, is graceful in proportion and tasteful in finish, and will accommodate 90,000 volumes. It is only fairly light, but is dry, convenient, and economical of space. The library is not large, but is well selected and rapidly increasing. Its nucleus is 2,000 volumes, bought of Thomas Chapman in 1832, among them being copies of the second and third editions of Erasmus' Greek testament, a bishops' bible, and a superb Antwerp polyglot. The libraries of the two old literary societies were given to the college in 1862. In 1867 there were 14,000 volumes, in 1878, 28,000, and in 1888, 36,000.

There is a valuable collection of books and pamphlets on the rise of Wesleyanism in England, and the memorial gift of the friends of the Hon. Moses T. Odell, of Brooklyn, comprises some 4,500 volumes on American history.

In 1868 the old boarding hall was changed into the university observatory by the addition of a tower containing a 12-inch refracting telescope made by Alvan Clark & Sons.

MEMORIAL CHAPEL.

In 1868 also was laid the cornerstone of this building, which cost $60,000, and commemorates the alumni who served in the civil war. It is of brown stone, as are all the other buildings of the row, and contains

[1] Cummings's Early Schools of Methodism, p. 182; College Book, p. 310.
[2] Wesleyan University Annals.

health.[1] He was born in Stratford, Conn., May 2, 1778. He was not a college graduate; but, beginning to preach in 1802, had a successful career, till he was chosen publishing agent in 1820; he was then engaged in editorial and secretarial labors till he became head of Wesleyan and, after leaving that post, again became a pastor. He died May 3, 1862, in New York City. During his presidency the college paper suggested that the "naked, uninteresting lawn be improved by planting trees, shrubs, etc." As a result of this, on April 20, 1841, the faculty voted "that the students be excused from recitation to-morrow (as they have been to-day) or the next fair day to finish planting trees on the campus." An effort of this kind had been made even before the college was founded, and after 1841 there was an annual tree day till 1862.[2] As a result of this the campus has many fine trees on it, which make it quite shady and pleasant.

PRESIDENT A. W. SMITH (1852–'57).

Prof. Smith had been connected with the college from the first, and during President Olin's travels in Europe, and his frequent periods of ill health, had attended to the details of the management of the college; so it was natural that he should be the next president.[3] He was born at Newport, Herkimer County, N. Y., May 12, 1802, and graduated at Hamilton College in 1825. He taught in New York State at Cazenovia till called to a professor's chair at the founding of Wesleyan in 1831.

President Smith was a "modest, unassuming man, of thorough culture," an excellent scholar, and a good instructor. He made no pretension to oratory, and disliked to appear before large audiences. He had a quiet energy and executive ability, which made his administration a successful one. The absurdly small endowment, endangering the active prosecution of the work of Wesleyan, received his attention and with Prof. H. B. Lane he got subscriptions for $100,000, four-fifths of which being paid in, put the college on a firmer basis than before. Isaac Rich began his benefactions to Wesleyan with a gift of $20,000 for this fund. John Gove gave $7,500 and Daniel Drew $5,000.

August 5, 1857, President Smith resigned and two years later he became a professor in the United States Naval Academy. He was one of a corps of astronomers sent to Labrador to observe an eclipse in 1860, and died March 22, 1866, at Annapolis, Md.

PRESIDENT JOSEPH CUMMINGS (1857–'75).

Rev. Joseph Cummings was the first alumnus of Wesleyan to become its president. He was born March 3, 1817, in Falmouth, Cumberland County, Me., and graduated at Wesleyan in 1840 with the highest honors. He taught at Amenia Seminary, entered the ministry,

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[1] College Book, p. 308.

[2] Wesleyan University Annals.

[3] Rev. John McClintock, D. D., was first elected, but declined.

1854, when he was made president of Genesee College, nce he was called by his alma mater. He possessed in e power to arouse curiosity and stimulate thought. His less, his devotion to the welfare of the college hearty, ll and popularity as an instructor, made his alminis- respects a successful one.[1] After resigning his presi- d several years as professor, then preached again, and resident of the Northwestern University at Evanston, d May 7, 1890, of heart failure. The buildings of the ed great increase under him. In his administration rebellion, when 11 per cent of the graduates and 30 in college during that time fought for their country.[2] killed.

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MEMORIAL CHAPEL.

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Early Schools of Methodism, p. 182; College Book, p. 310.
niversity Annals.

MEMORIAL CHAPEL—WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.

on the ground floor two recitation rooms and a chapel for daily prayers. The upper floor is occupied by a large chapel with a memorial window to the alumni who died in their country's cause. It was dedicated in commencement week, 1871.

ORANGE JUDD HALL OF NATURAL SCIENCE.

This was opened on the same day that memorial chapel was dedicated. It cost $100,000, is the gift of Orange Judd, an alumnus of 1847, and contains four stories and a basement. The first floor is devoted to chemistry, the north side of the second floor to natural history, and the south side to physics. The third and fourth floors are occupied by the museum, the fourth being a gallery of the third, and containing the botanical, zoölogical, and ethnological collections. The third floor has the collections of geology and mineralogy. The museum is recent, but is one of the finest features of Wesleyan, and Orange Judd Hall has done much to give so many young Wesleyan men their marked scientific tastes.[1] The building was given as a memorial of a son, and Dr. Newhall, at the dedication, well struck the keynote of the ideas the building is meant to represent. He said:

> Wesley, the great religious reformer, did more to popularize science and to educate the masses of the people than any other man of the eighteenth century. When the fathers laid the foundation of this university they felt, by the sure instinct of enlightened piety, that science and religion are as inseparable as head and heart.

CHARTER OF 1870.

The joint board was now composed of 29 trustees and 30 visitors from thirteen patronizing conferences, and was found too large for convenience, besides which the joint system was cumbrous, so the charter was changed in 1870 and a new board of trustees made, to consist of not over 40. Of these, each conference should elect one, the alumni and the joint board the rest. The new system has worked successfully and is still in force. In 1871 G. I. Seney put a steeple on Memorial Chapel, making it 144 feet high. In 1872 a pipe organ was put in the building, and the porch was added in 1873.

PRESIDENT CYRUS D. FOSS (1875–'80).

Bishop Foss was born on January 17, 1834, at Kingston, Ulster County, N. Y., and graduated from Wesleyan in 1854. Doing as President Cummings had done before him, he taught in Amenia Seminary and from 1857 to 1874 he was engaged in the work of the pastorate. In this service he had won wide reputation as possessing sound scholarship and executive ability. He was inaugurated as president of Wesleyan on October 26, 1875, and left to become a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church in May, 1880.[2] He was much loved by the students

[1] College Book, p. 312. [2] Hist. Sketch, p. 17.

ation is especially noteworthy for an earnest attempt
lowment. This had not kept pace in its growth with
productive wealth in buildings and, in the depression
1873 some of the productive property had lost value.
e trustees reported an alarming state of things. The
arly increasing and yearly a debt was being made
then amounted to $60,000, while but one-half of re-
e good.[1] The income-bearing funds were $141,000;
$20,000, and the outlay $46,000.

promptly appreciated the gravity of the situation,
e in 1876 said: "Only large and generous help
the institution could save it from danger." A com-
ni appealed to all graduates to aid the university in
,000 was subscribed and for several years the annual
it occurred, largely from the pockets of the trustees.
of President Foss's term, $375,000 was added to the
ich George I. Seney gave $175,000.

aising a fund of half a million to commemorate the
independence was proposed by the trustees in 1875.
gifts were $10,000 from G. F. Terry, of Orange, N. J.;
Hoyt, of Stamford, Conn.; $5,000 from W. Hoyt, of
$5,000 from J. F. Judd, of Hartford, Conn.; $40,000
t, of New York, with which a professorship was
rom J. H. Taft, of Brooklyn, N. Y.; the same amount
s, of Bristol, Conn.; and $7,750 from Mary Taber's

s noble character, his kindness and courtesy, his un-
m for goodness, his inspiring piety, could not fail to
s, and "his influence was itself an education of the

DENT JOHN W. BEACH, D. D. (1880–'87).

Foss's retirement, after his election as bishop, Dr.
wn scholar and clergyman, was chosen his successor,
re of G. I. Seney, the generous benefactor of Wes-
was born on December 26, 1825, at Trumbull, Fair-
n., and graduated from Wesleyan in 1845. He taught
ary, as his two predecessors did, and from 1854 to
pastor and presiding elder of the Methodist Episcopal
first years of his ministry, there was no decline of
erity. On the contrary, the endowment largely in-
through the generosity of Mr. Seney. In the fall
$75,000, and in June, 1881, $100,000, the income of
used for scholarships, of which sixteen were to be
men and eight to each of the upper classes. In Jan-

[1] College Book, p. 317.

uary, 1882, he gave $150,000 more, making in all nearly half a million, while gifts from others had made the total sum added to the endowment nearly $800,000. Unfortunately for Wesleyan, Mr. Seney was involved in the financial crisis of 1883, and as he had not paid in all of his gift the university lost a large share of it.

President Beach's popularity with the students decreased after a few years, and, as the situation was pleasant to no one, he resigned at the request of the trustees in 1887 and is now a presiding elder of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

ACTING PRESIDENT J. M. VAN VLECK (1887–'89).

The office of president was not at once filled, but Prof. Van Vleck was appointed acting president and served in that capacity for two years. He was born on March 4, 1833, at Stone Ridge, Ulster County, N. Y., graduated at Wesleyan in 1850, and since 1853 has taught mathematics and astronomy at his *alma mater*.

A marked feature of President Van Vleck's two years of service was the increased interest in the university by the alumni, as shown by the formation of new alumni associations. Three of these: at New York in 1869, at Boston, and at Philadelphia, antedate this period, but in these two years the list was doubled by the organization of the Central Alumni Association at Chicago, the Northeastern Pennsylvania one at Wilkes Barre, and the Southern California one at Los Angeles. The university began again to receive part of the Seney fund, and all things seemed looking towards a new era of prosperity.

PRESIDENT B. P. RAYMOND (1889—).

The Rev. Bradford Paul Raymond was chosen president in the fall of 1888, and was inaugurated on Wednesday, June 26, 1889. He entered upon his duties in the fall, and at once became popular with the students. He was born at Stamford, Conn., April 22, 1846, and from the time he was 15 till he was 18 he taught school. Then he enlisted in the Forty-eighth New York Infantry and served through the rebellion, being mustered out in September, 1865. Then, after teaching a year at home, he went to Red Wing, Wis., to go into business, but, changing his mind, he entered Hamlin University there. When he was a junior the college suspended at the end of the winter term. He, however, went to work, hired the buildings, and, getting enough students to remain, so as to pay the salaries of the professors, kept up the college till the end of the college year. Then he entered Lawrence University at Appleton, Wis., and graduated there in 1870. Coming East, he entered the theological department of Boston University and graduated in 1873. He entered the pastorate of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and in 1880–'81 studied in Germany. In 1883 he was made president of Lawrence University,[1] from which post he was called to Wesleyan. He

[1] University Magazine, II, 4-5.

l at Lawrence, and has won considerable reputation
a student of philosophy. Under him Wesleyan has
k.

RECENT GIFTS TO WESLEYAN.

niversity Bulletin states:

sleyan are applied solidly to the maintenance of a college of
s purpose its means compare favorably with those of most of
t reputed colleges of the land. In respect of endowment fund
ongest of the purely collegiate foundations of New England.

received some valuable gifts. Daniel Ayres, M. D.,
Wesleyan without graduating there, because it was
e the students sufficiently advanced instruction in
He resolved, if ever the opportunity came, he would
ney, and so, in April, 1889, he gave $25,000 to endow
biology. In October of the same year he deeded to
res of land valued at $30,000, for the same purpose.
89, at the annual dinner of the New York Wesleyan
lditional gift of $250,000 was announced from this
. An attempt is being made to raise an equal amount
alumni, and $60,000 were pledged the evening that
announced. With that added to its previous funds,
tted to supply the growing needs of higher educa-

college received $20,000 from the estate of W. H.
of 1851, and the reversion of the estate of E. B. Nye,
s of 1835, who, tradition says, made the first recita-

w being made to give Wesleyan a new gymnasium.
ructure, which was the one part of Wesleyan visitors
through, has long been extremely inadequate, and
records have been made in spite of it. In the sum-
ons movement was begun to raise from the alumni
l for a new gymnasium, some $40,000. The students
e matter up, and, at a crowded college meeting in
ledged $1,500; a large sum, considering that most
are men of small means.

CULTY AND ALUMNI OF WESLEYAN.

fessors Wesleyan has never pursued an injurious
ng; but has taken the best men attainable, without
ace of graduation. Among prominent nonalumni
irs in the college, were the Rev. D. D. Whedon, a
on, who taught Latin and Greek 1833 to 1842, suc-
ed Rev. J. M. Smith, a Columbia graduate, who died
ng of Wesleyan history; the Rev. Joseph Holdich,

biographer of President Fisk, professor of moral science and belles-lettres from 1836 to 1849, and then corresponding secretary of the American Bible Society, and John Johnson, a graduate of Bowdoin, professor of natural sciences from 1835 to 1879. The Hon. W. L. Storrs, a Yale graduate, gave lectures on law from 1841 to 1846; J. C. Van Benschoten, a graduate of Hamilton, has been professor of Greek since 1864; the Rev. G. Prentice has been at Wesleyan since 1871; the venerable Lyman Coleman, an alumnus of Yale, gave instruction at Wesleyan from 1860 to 1862, and the talented Woodrow Wilson, a Princeton man, was professor of history and political economy for two years.

The number of students increased very rapidly at first and reached 120 in 1836, then it remained nearly stationary for a long number of years, having only increased to 153 in 1869, in 1880 there were 164 students, and in 1888, 218.

In 1871 the Alumni Association resolved "that as there is nothing in the charter of the university to exclude ladies from the privileges of this institution, we heartily hope that they may avail themselves of the opportunities open to them."[1] In consequence of this, the catalogue soon had this sentence: "Ladies are admitted to equal privileges in the university with gentlemen."

In 1876 four women graduated, and a few have been in nearly every class since that date. In 1883 as President Beach did not use the president's house, it was fitted up for a ladies' dormitory. In the fall of 1889 as President Raymond was again to cause the house to return to its old use, a large building, formerly a boarding school, across High street from the college, was rented for the female students.

Comparatively few young ladies have availed themselves of the advantages of Wesleyan, there being only 16 there during the winter of 1888–'89. They have always maintained a high standard of scholarship; but a little of the chivalry and deference to women seems to be lost by the association with the young men. It would seem a thing open to criticism that in catalogues their names are printed after the men instead of with or before them, and the half-contemptuous way in which the men speak of the women students makes an observer doubt very seriously whether coeducation is a success at Wesleyan. At any rate, the college, one of the first of New England ones to try the experiment, is courageously carrying it out.

In 1869 through the generosity of Orange Judd, an elaborate alumni register was issued; a second edition appeared in 1873, and a third in 1883. The last contains 720 pages, and is probably as complete as any ever issued by an American college. From it much of the material for this sketch of Wesleyan's history has been obtained.

In 1882 there had been 1,291 graduated from Wesleyan, of whom 1,051 were then living. Of these 45 per cent, or 474, had been clergymen,

[1] Scribner's, XII, 618.

g in the Methodist Episcopal Church. Of the alumni
,248 had taken the regular academic course leading
; 39 had been made bachelors of science and 4 bach-
y. During the rebellion, 145 served in the Union
e Confederate.
Judd said:

achings and preachings of the graduates of Wesleyan Univer-
de influence in the largest Protestant Church and indirectly

, and in large measure is it due to the college to
k gave his superb life that the ministry of the Meth-
Church, instead of containing but one college-bred
ing the early years of this century, has come to be a
n equality in culture with those of other denomina-

tes came early and 2 were there in 1833; but after a
sed to come, and have only since 1872 begun to be
Vesleyan's life.
were 5 pursuing graduate studies at Wesleyan. In
an men have done finely, and in 1882 212 graduates
es were entered in a table of the Wesleyan men who

0 was the first to vote a triennial reunion; but the
llowed by many of the succeeding classes.
ation of Wesleyan up to 1881, 311 honorary degrees
the university.
individual graduates worthy of mention. In 1833
at graduated, was the Rev. G. H. Round, president
male College; President Holden Dwight, of Baldwin
alumnus of 1835, as was Bishop J. C. Keener, of the
al Church South, and the Rev. B. F. Tefft, president
ge. In 1836 were graduated S. B. Buckley, State
; Bishop D. W. Clark, of the Methodist Episcopal
D. P. Kidder, and W. H. N. Magruder, superintend-
ls in Louisiana. In the class of 1837 were President
Dickinson, the Rev. D. Curry, president of Indiana
, Greencastle, Ind., the Rev. E. E. Wiley, president
ry College, Virginia, and the Rev. W. H. Anderson,
vely of St. Charles College, Missouri, Central Col-
souri, Florence University, Alabama, and Wesleyan
. The class of 1838 contained the Rev. Edward
f Lawrence University and later of Claflin Univer-
Agricultural College of South Carolina; President
Victoria College, Canada; Franklin Soule, a promi-
rnalist, and the Rev. Bostwick Hawley.

Clark T. Hinman, founder and first president of the Northwestern University, was graduated in 1839, as were President A. C. Huestiss, of Fort Wayne Female College, President H. M. Johnson, of Dickinson College, President Ichabod Marcy, president of Claflin University, South Carolina, and Clark University, Georgia, and President H. Pickard, of Mt. Albion Wesleyan College of New Brunswick.

In 1840 we find President Joseph Cummings, of Genesee College, Wesleyan University, and Northwestern University, the Rev. Joseph Denison, president of the Kansas State Agricultural College, and of Baker University, Kansas, J. H. Goodale, secretary of state for New Hampshire, the Rev. J. W. Lindsay, president of Genesee College, and B. T. Mudge, Kansas State geologist.

In 1841 were graduated the Rev. Robert Allyn, president of Wesleyan Female College, Cincinnati, Ohio, J. W. North, judge of the Nevada supreme court, President R. S. Rust, of Wilberforce University, Xenia, Ohio, and the Rev. B. K. Pierce, of Boston. Bishop E. O. Haven, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, was graduated in 1842, and has been president of the University of Michigan and of the Northwestern University.

In the class of 1843 were the Rev. N. E. Cobleigh, president of McKendree College and of East Tennessee Wesleyan University, and the Rev. J. H. Twombly, president of the University of Wisconsin. In 1844 were graduated Lieut. Governor O. Faville, of Iowa, President L. C. Loomis, of Wheeling Female College, the Rev. R. Z. Mason, president of Lawrence University, and the Rev. James Strong, one of the editors of McClintock and Strong's Religious Cyclopedia. President J. W. Beach is an alumnus of 1845, as is Prof. M. C. White, of the Yale Medical School.

In 1846 Bishop G. Haven, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, was graduated, as was President S. S. Nelles, of Victoria College, Canada, In 1847 the class contained Bishop E. G. Andrews, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Cornelius Cole, United States Senator from California, Orange Judd, the well-known publisher and benefactor to Wesleyan, and Prof. Alexander Winchell, the celebrated geologist.

The Rev. Daniel Steele was graduated in 1848, and in 1849 the Rev. J. Calder, president of Hillsdale College, Michigan. In 1850 we find President Jabez Brooks, of Hamline University, Minnesota, the Rev. N. J. Burton, of Hartford, Gen. A. J. Edgerton, United States Senator from Minnesota, Albert H. Hoyt, formerly editor of the New England Historic Genealogical Register, Gen. J. B. Van Petten, Prof. J. M. Van Vleck, and President G. McK. Steele, of Lawrence University. In 1852 were the Rev. C. W. Bennett and Prof. C. S. Harrington, long connected with Wesleyan.

In 1853 were graduated President W. F. Warren, of Boston University, Bishop H. W. Warren, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and J. A. Skilton, consul-general to Mexico. Bishop C. D. Foss and W. C.

of Bordentown Female College, New Jersey, were gradu-
a year later C. C. Baldwin, of Cincinnati, the historian,
Round, of the Centenary Biblical Institute at Baltimore,
. X. Ninde, of the Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston,
ni. In 1856 were President C. H. Payne, of the Ohio
rsity, J. M. Pomeroy, adjutant-general of Arkansas,
. D. McVoy, of Centenary Female College, Alabama,
male College, Mississippi. In 1857 the class contained
omfort, and President W. F. Mallalieu, of Central Ten-
Governor F. W. Pitkin, of Colorado, is an alumnus of

raduated G. E. King, present judge of the New Bruns-
urt, W. S. Squire, United States Senator from Wash-
S. Tarbell, superintendent of instruction in Michigan.
urns, comptroller of Liberia, was graduated. Rev. J.
of the editors of the Berean Lesson Books for Sunday
lumnus of 1864. In 1865 were graduated W. O. At-
of chemistry, and W. N. Rice, professor of geology at
rsity, the Rev. James Mudge, missionary to India, and
Rust, of Cincinnati Wesleyan College. Prof. G. G.
nus of 1866 and R. N. Crane, formerly, of the St. Louis
one of 1867. The Rev. W. F. Crafts the advocate of
servance, was graduated in 1869 and G. Brown Goode,
ian Institution, in 1870. In 1872 the class contained
J. Lansing, of Clark University, Georgia.

CURRICULUM AT WESLEYAN.

how President Fisk gave, at the very beginning of
turn toward natural sciences which has ever marked
d how the department system was tried up to 1846.
Hebrew is taught at an extra charge. Many Methodist
immediately upon their calling after graduation, and
d a department of ecclesiastical history and one of
re added. These, however, were given up two years
neering and physiology appear in 1840, in which year
normal instruction was added for those intending to
d for some years the male department of the City
a practice school. In 1841 the subject of electives was
law department added with two students. This last
1846. In 1843 botany was introduced and in 1844
s were dropped from the course of study, to be rein-
er, in 1850. In 1858 a course of three years in science
but only thirteen took degrees in it up to 1870. In
was extended to four years and coördinated with
rse. Elocution was introduced in 1860 and the num-
reatly increased in 1869.

In 1873 three regular courses of study were arranged, the classical, the Latin-scientific, and the scientific, the latter two being "designed to secure to those whose circumstances or tastes do not permit an extended study of the ancient languages, an opportunity to acquire a sound mental training and liberal culture, as well as a good preparation for advanced courses of scientific or technical study." Provision for special students was also made. In the Freshman year, all the studies were required and in the Sophomore year of the scientific course, but in the last two years of that and the last three years of the other courses some choice was allowed, the students being permitted to select a greater portion of their work, as they went on in their course.

The aim of Wesleyan has ever been to "see to it that the student calls into training all his powers," and to "furnish him with a knowledge of the elementary principles and methods of all the great departments of thought." But Wesleyan has striven also to direct the work of the student into some chosen channel by which he may obtain "that high intellectual pleasure which comes only from the extended study of a congenial topic." The spirit with which Wesleyan men work and the energy which they put into their study, as they do indeed into everything else, is truly delightful.

In 1886 the courses were slightly modified so as to make the required work slightly less and the different courses better coördinated. In 1874 a system of honors was adopted. Those students who received 88 per cent of a possible 100 (92, however, being the highest ever given) were given first honors, and second honors are for all who stand above 83 per cent. Special honors are also given for excellence in some particular line of study. Tuition was $36 a year till 1846 and $33 from 1846 to 1874, when it was raised to $75, at which it now stands. Up to 1879, all entrance examinations had been held in Middletown; but, with that year, Wesleyan began to try to accommodate candidates with examinations nearer home, and, accordingly, such are held in Philadelphia, Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Chicago, if application be made.

The government of the college is firm but just; lenient, but stern on occasion, and in general but little difficulty is experienced between faculty and student.

Recently decisions have been made to confer no longer the degree of M. A. in course, and to accept on certificate candidates for admission from certain preparatory schools.

FINANCIAL GROWTH.

In face of manifold difficulties, Wesleyan has attained a place among the very best of American colleges. Its alumni are zealous, its faculty united, its students enthusiastic, and all together seem likely to make the college fulfill the best wishes of its friends.[1]

[1] College Book, p. 319.

In former years, Connecticut showed its interest in Wesleyan by giving it $10,000 in 1855, and during the period ending with 1868 Isaac Rich[1] and Daniel Drew, both well known benefactors, gave each $100,000 to the university. By the gifts of George I. Seney most of the professorships were endowed, and Wesleyan, though still not a wealthy college, is not ill equipped for its work.

In the year ending June 20, 1889, the real estate of the university was valued at $400,000, its personal property at $109,630, its resources at $698,556.45. These brought in an income of some $36,000, which, with $12,500 from tuition, etc., and $2,800 from subscriptions, made up the income of the college. The expenditures were $53,118, leaving a small balance in the treasury.

In 1860, gas was introduced into the dormitories and water was introduced in 1868. In 1882 Wesleyan united with eight other colleges to found the American School of Archæology and Classical Philology at Athens, Greece.

SCHOLARSHIPS AND PRIZES.

In 1884 the John Evans scholarship was founded with an income of about $100 to be given to an upper classman preparing for the ministry. In 1877 the Squire scholarship was founded. It yields $150 and is given to the senior passing the best examination in Greek and remaining in Middletown for one year as a post graduate. The Seney scholarships now number 48, are distributed equally among the classes, and amount to from $50 to $155 yearly. The Rich prize, founded in 1865, is given for the best senior oration at commencement. The Olin prize, founded in 1867, is given for the best essay by a number of the senior class. The Harrington prize, founded in 1877, is given to the senior excelling in history. The Wise prize, founded in 1869, to the one excelling in moral philosophy. The Pierce prize is awarded to any student, not a freshman, excelling in natural science, and was founded in 1869. The G. Brown Goode prize is given for the best original investigation in natural history. The Romig prize and the George E. Reed prize are given as a first and second prizes to those having the best orations at junior exhibition. The Camp and the Weeks prizes are given to juniors excelling in English literature and in logic respectively. The Parker and Scranton prizes (founded in 1880) are awarded to the first and second speakers in the junior and sophomore classes. The Walkley prize is given to the junior excelling in metaphysics. The Spinney prize is given to the sophomore excelling in Greek, the *Φ B K* prize (1864) to the one excelling in Latin, and the Rice prize (1877) to the one excelling in mathematics. The Sherman prize (1873) is awarded to the freshman excelling in Latin; the Hibbard, to the one excelling in declamation. The Ayres prize (1863) is given for the best entrance examination, and the Taylor prize (1868) for the best English poem written by any student.

[1] In 1863 he founded the Olin professorship, with $25,000.

NORTH COLLEGE—WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.

ORANGE JUDD HALL WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY.

THE WESLEYAN MUSEUM.

When Wesleyan University was founded,[1] in one of the rooms of the college buildings were found some 1,800 specimens of minerals and fossils belonging to Dr. Joseph Barratt, formerly a professor in the Military Academy. These were bought for $400 and formed the nucleus of Wesleyan's fine museum.

The first regular course of scientific lectures was delivered in 1833 by Prof. W. W. Mather, and then some friends made the first donation to the cabinet by giving $100 for the purchase of minerals. Soon afterwards Dr. Wm. Prescott's collection of 4,000 shells and several hundred minerals was bought, and President Fisk brought back from Europe many specimens of minerals. Other gifts were made from time to time both of minerals and of money to buy them, and a little over twenty years ago the Franckford collection was purchased. It contained about 2,000 specimens of valuable minerals and some insects, and cost $1,400, given by friends of the institution. A new era was marked by the purchase of the collection of shells made by Simon Shurtleff, M. D. These were bought in 1868, and consisted of 5,000 species and 8,000 specimens besides 650 birds and 1,000 coins, and cost $10,000.

With the opening of Judd Hall the work of organizing a symmetrical and comprehensive educational museum was begun. It was intended to make it both a workshop for the student and a place of instruction for the populace, and success has been attained in both aims.

The plans made contemplate the extension of the museum in two ways. "First, the typical or instruction series, enabling the instructor to demonstrate from specimens the statements presented in text-books and lectures. Second, to complete the local collection, which is to include all those forms found in our own district of country. As an adjunct to this collection, we have aimed to secure any well authenticated named specimens of any forms occurring in North America."

From the connection of Mr. Goode with the Smithsonian Museum, Wesleyan has been able to obtain many duplicate specimens for its museum. Mr. Goode was curator of the Wesleyan Museum until 1880 and during these years the museum was made symmetrical, the collection of fishes, especially, being one of the finest in the country. In 1881 Orange Judd gave a set of Ward's casts of fossils. Mr. Joseph S. Spinney and the Hon. T. R. Pickering were also great benefactors of the museum.

Under the care of Prof. Johnston and later of Prof. Rice[2] and Prof. Conn, the museum has become one of the best in the country. The last inventory was taken in 1887. At that time there were 134,660

[1] Report of museum for 1877.

[2] The author takes this opportunity to express his thanks to Prof. Rice for information given.

h 108,810 were in the department of zoölogy, 11,400 and 14,450 in that of mineralogy and geology. It is for room and soon a new building will be needed.

WESLEYAN STUDENT LIFE.

rly catalogues we read: "It should be especially e number of the students board themselves, at about of board at the boarding house (this was $1.50 a ilk and vegetable diet, and find it very conducive to ." And a little further on we find the exclamation: s learn that money in the pockets of youths is a sui- ftener than otherwise destroys scholarship, charac- Wesleyan students have generally been men of ve lived economically.

aculty provided books for the students at reduced were kept up until 1840, since which date the stu- l in eating clubs. Until 1845 the catalogues were udents and the profits went to the reading room.

y exercises were first held on the college campus. ve been in the North Congregational Church. In egan of celebrating Washington's birthday as an th firing of crackers, etc., which was carried so far trous results in the winter of 1888–89.

l war a whole company of men, the Wesleyan Uni- nteered as Company G, First Connecticut Artillery. rs have no longer been held at inconveniently early prayers were given up in 1858. Evening prayers 1878.

s much sickness in the college, but in general Wes- f its hillside position, has been very healthy.

1 the Arion Glee Club was founded, and Wesleyan an enviable reputation for its music.

n won the second prize at an intercollegiate literary est, and in 1879 both of Wesleyan's representatives

ut, from 1836 to 1853, two masters' orations were 876 there has been no procession at that time.

l, occurred the semicentennial celebration of the dresses by President Beach and Bishop E. G. An- J. M. King, 1862, and Bishop Cyrus D. Foss, 1841, . Olin, 1866, and Prof. C. S. Harrington, 1852.

WESLEYAN ORGANIZATIONS.

nized the Missionary Lyceum, which was maintained it an annual sermon used to be preached. The tian Association of Wesleyan was organized in May,

1885, "for the purpose of better union of Christian work among the students and with other colleges." It has a room fitted up for it in Memorial Chapel, and the association endeavors, with great success, "to exert such an influence upon the students that they may be led to take a decided stand in favor of the right, immediately upon their entrance into our midst, and to assist them by our sympathy and prayers to remain true to their principles all through the somewhat trying years of college life."[1]

The Middletown Scientific Association was organized in March, 1871, by members of the college faculty and other citizens of Middletown. It holds monthly meetings and discusses papers prepared by its members.

In 1875 Connecticut established an agricultural experiment station in Judd Hall, and to it the State appropriated $2,500 and Mr. Judd gave $1,000. This was removed in 1877, but within a short time Prof. Atwater accepted the directorship of an experiment station to be connected with the Storrs Agricultural School at Mansfield. The chemical investigations for this are to be prosecuted in Wesleyan's chemical laboratory, where Prof. Atwater has made his valuable observations on the chemistry of food.

The oldest students' society was the Philorhetorean Lyceum, later known as "Philo." It was organized on November 1, 1831, and was followed by the "Non Nomenenda Society," of the same character, in November, 1831, and the Adelphian Society, also founded in the same month. The Non Nomenenda Society merged with the Adelphian in February, 1832, and a year later the name was changed to the "Peithologian Society," or "Peitho." These societies had libraries and cabinets, and had annual addresses delivered before them. In 1833 Philo elected editors for a magazine and issued a prospectus, but the plan was given up before a number had been issued. In 1866 meetings were discontinued as the Greek-letter societies had taken away the interest of the men. The societies died out in 1868, though "Peitho" had a few meetings in 1870. In January, 1869, the Cinean Society was formed to take their place, but died in the following September. A Wesleyan house of commons was organized for the same purpose in the spring of 1889.

The first secret society was the Tub Philosophers, organized in 1833, and later called the Thecanians or Thencannies. It died in 1845. A second four-year society was the Mystical Seven, organized in August, 1837. In 1867 it was changed to a senior society called Owl and Wand. In the fall of 1837 was organized the local fraternity of $\Phi\ N\ \Theta$, more commonly known as the "Eclectic." It has always stood in the front rank at Wesleyan, and occupies an elegant house, dedicated June 27, 1882, on College Place. Its only attempt to plant a chapter at Syracuse University was unsuccessful.

[1] Report of the president, F. H. L. Hammond, in the Wesleyan Bulletin, 1, 9.

40, was organized the local fraternity of $K\ \Delta\ \Phi$; , the name was changed to $K\ \Sigma\ \Theta$, and on Novem- ame the Ξ chapter of $\Psi\ \Gamma$. It possesses a fine hall ened February 1, 1878. In the fall of 1843 a short- , The Social Union, was formed. The A chapter of was founded in the fall of 1844. It died out in d in 1876. It possesses a pleasant chapter-house. Connecticut of $\Phi\ B\ K$ was founded at Wesleyan takes somewhat less than one-third of each class

, a local society at Wesleyan, changed its name to ety. In 1854 the Libanian Society was formed. 1856, and received a charter as the Middletown This chapter is one of the very best at Wesleyan, gant new chapter-house at the corner of High and maintains an excellent course of lectures every

57 the O chapter of $\Theta\ \Delta\ X$ was founded and died raternity of $\Sigma\ \Phi\ \Sigma$ was in existence from 1865 to

Serpent, a senior society, was organized. In May er of $\Delta\ K\ E$ was organized and is now flourishing, ansion on High street.

ptered society, $\Theta\ N\ F$, was founded at Wesleyan in now has branches in many colleges. In 1872 were man, and Corpse and Coffin, a junior society, and Spade, a sophomore society. In 1877, also, was hman society, and in March, 1883, the O chapter ar's ladies society.[1]

JOURNALISM AND ATHLETICS.

ppeared the first number of the Classic or College ublished by Barnes & Saxe, and edited by a com- with Prof. William M. Willett as editor-in-chief. In a college meeting, it was voted to "let it die," ancial support, and attempts to revive it in the ilures. On November 8, 1858, appeared the first n's annual, the Olla Podrida. It was published rs, and since then in pamphlet form. In 1861 it phomores; in 1862, by freshmen; from 1864 to 1873, es; from then to 1876, by the Argus Association; Podrida committee, and since then by the junior

was first published the College Argus, which has the able organ of the Wesleyan students.

chapter of $B\ \Theta\ \Pi$ was founded in 1889.

In early days footballs were bought by freshmen and kicked about the campus, as if in premonition of Wesleyan's love for that sport. In 1858 the first boat was bought and two clubs were formed. In 1861 these had increased to seven and boat races were indulged in from time to time. In 1872 at the college regatta at Springfield, the Wesleyan freshmen came in first, making the best time to that date ever made by a freshmen crew. In 1873 Wesleyan's crew came in second at the intercollegiate regatta at Springfield, and fifth at that at Saratoga in 1875. In 1874 there was a class boat race for six silver prize cups, and there was a challenge cup regularly raced for by the different classes for many years. It now reposes in Rich Hall, for boating, it is to be regretted, is entirely dead at Wesleyan. Her last triumphs were coming in second at the Lake George college regattas in 1879 and 1882.

Baseball was first played in 1861, and the Agallian Baseball Club existed from 1865 to 1869; but the national game has never been Wesleyan's favorite sport.

In the spring of 1874 the athletic grounds of Wesleyan were laid out west of the dormitories, and from 1875 athletic meetings have been held. In 1875 football began to be played scientifically, and the football association was organized in 1881 when the grounds were laid out west of the dormitories. In 1886 Wesleyan entered the Intercollegiate Football Association with Yale, Princeton, and University of Pennsylvania, to which Harvard was added the next year. It has obtained great advantage from its proximity to Yale, enabling it to play frequent practice games with the latter.

Wesleyan has done a grand work in the past, is doing good work to-day, and with the spirit it shows has the best outlook for success in the future.

Chapter VIII.

TTACHED PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.

—The Litchfield Law School.

but one extinct institution for higher education and tion was, in its lifetime, a renowned seminary of pro- —the Litchfield Law School.[1]

chfield from its very foundation has been renowned l refinement of its people and for the number of great ed. But from an educational standpoint its chief s the seat of the first regular law school in the United

g Reeve instituted the Litchfield Law School. He khaven, Long Island, in October, 1744, and died at er 13, 1823. In 1763 he was graduated at Princeton, l to Litchfield and began the practice of law there. thing then, as it is now, for a lawyer of note to have office and give them instruction; but Judge Reeve nstruct a regular course and really to give a complete lectures and recitations. He conducted the school 8, when he associated James Gould (Yale College, 1791) two constituted the faculty till Judge Reeve retired judge of the Connecticut superior court, also, from was a Federalist in politics. He was the first lawyer to advocate a change in the law regarding the prop- men. In 1851 the Hon. C. G. Loring, one of his for- f him:

character and appearance, his thick gray hair parted and fall- his shoulders, his voice only a loud whisper, but distinctly attentive pupils. He was full of legal learning, but invested genial enthusiasm and generous feelings and noble sentiments e age of 80, and descanted to us with glowing eloquence upon ajesty of law. His teachings of the law in reference to the the domestic relations had great influence in elevating and s of the young men who were privileged to hear him. We left ery knight-errants of the law, burning to be the defenders of ngers of the wrong, and he is no true son of the Litchfield forgotten that lesson.

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[1] tient, Vol. 3 Harper's, 114, 514, "Litchfield Hill," by J. D.

History of Litchfield County, p. 258.

Judge Reeve married a daughter of President Burr of Princeton, and was the author of several valuable law books. Chancellor Kent says of his works, "he everywhere displays the vigor, freedom, and acuteness of a sound and liberal mind."[1]

Judge Gould, his fellow-teacher, was born in Branford, Conn., in 1770, and died in Litchfield, May 11, 1838. In 1816 he was made judge of the superior court and of the supreme court of error of Connecticut. His lectures on pleading were revised by him and published, and "Gould's Pleading is a legal classic of the highest order and has placed its author among the very best legal writers of the age."[2] He read "his able and finished lectures with a cold dignity to his students, each seated at his separate desk intent on copying from his lips the principles laid down and the authorities referred to."[3] The Hon. C. G. Loring called him—

> The last of the Romans of the common law lawyers, the impersonation of its genius and spirit. It was indeed in his eyes the perfection of human wisdom by which he measured every principle of action and almost every sentiment. He was an admirable English scholar. From him we obtained clear, well defined, and accurate knowledge of the common law, and learned that allegiance to it was the chief duty of man, and the power of enforcing it upon others his highest attainment.[4]

These two great lawyers, "among the first, if not the first founders of a national law school in America, who have laid one of the corner-stones in the foundation of true American patriotism, loyalty to the law," virtually were the school, for with the failing health of the younger it was given up in 1833.

In 1820 when Judge Reeve retired, Judge Gould associated with him Jabez W. Huntington, afterwards judge of the supreme court of Connecticut and United States Senator.

These three were the only instructors ever engaged in the school. Under them were in all 1,024 students, an enormous number, considering the period when the school flourished. Of these, 210 were in attendance during the period from 1784 to 1798, 264 from 1798 to 1812, and 550 after that date. The South furnished 183 these—nearly one-sixth of the whole number, and every State then in the Union was represented at one time or another. The influence of this school was felt in the bar of every section of the country.

Many of the students attained eminence; 16 became United States Senators, 5 Cabinet officers, 8 chief justices of States and 2 justices of the United States Supreme Court, 10 governors of States, 50 members of Congress, and 40 judges of supreme courts in the different states. Among these were such men as John C. Calhoun,[5] Henry Baldwin, John

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[1] Conn., 291 n. (Ed., '51).

[2] Marvin's Legal Bibliography, 312.

[3] Woolsey, Fiftieth Anniversary of Yale Law School.

[4] Kilbourne's Litchfield, p. 258.

[5] A tree is still shown at Litchfield which is said to have been set out by him.

ia, ambassador to France, Levi Woodbury of New
ry Clayton of Delaware, Hubbard and Ellsworth of
ur of Vermont, Morton and Metcalf of Massachu-
d Dawson of Georgia; Ashley and Hunt of New
lge of Ohio. One hundred and fifty of the graduates
ived diplomas from Yale. The wide-spreading in-
ol is shown by the geographical distribution of the
rfect list of the students, numbering 805, shows that
ed 206; New York, 125; Massachusetts, 90; Georgia,
, 45; Maryland, 36; Pennsylvania, 30; Vermont, 26;
New Hampshire, Virginia, and North Carolina, each
New Jersey, 11, and Kentucky, 9.

he school was published till 1798. In 1827 a gen-
published. It states that the course was one of
h two vacations of four weeks each, one in the spring
Tuition, for those days, was high, being $100 for
$60 for the second year, and no one was allowed to
od than three months. Every Saturday there was
the lectures of the week and moot courts were also

HARTFORD THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL.

NEW HAVEN THEOLOGY.

whose name was changed in 1885 from the "Theo-
Connecticut," owes its formation to the controver-
f the so-called New Haven theology of Prof. N. W.
Divinity School. As the Rev. Bennet Tyler was
the controversy was called "Taylorism *vs.* Tylerism,"
y in pamphlets and magazines for some years. As
was imagined that some of the professors at Yale
ews commonly thought to be orthodox on some mat-
thing which really aroused the conflict was Prof.
ncio ad Clerum. This was preached in the Yale
ning of commencement, September 10, 1828. This
enets which were believed to be subversive of Cal-
attacked some of the most cherished doctrines of
logians of the day. These claimed that the follow-
views were heterodox. (I quote Prof. Thompson,
pponents of them:

have prevented all sin in a moral system. Second. Mankind
with the same nature in kind as that with which Adam was
hat his posterity uniformly sin is due to the circumstances in
. Third. Self-love is the primary cause of all moral action.
thesis was in these words: "Of all specific voluntary action
gent in some form is the ultimate end." Fourth. Antecedent

to regeneration, the selfish principle is suspended in the sinner's heart, so that he ceases to sin and uses the means of regeneration with motives that are neither sinful nor holy.[1]

The organ of Dr. Taylor and his friends was the Christian Spectator, then the leading religious quarterly of New England. Their articles were answered by Dr. Tyler and others, and for some years the controversy was fierce. Dr. Tyler claimed that Dr. Taylor's teachings led to a denial of the doctrines of decrees, original sin, regeneration, and election, as formerly held by the Congregational Churches. He was supposed to be the author of a volume of 180 pages, published in 1837 and entitled "Letters on the Origin and Progress of the New Haven Theology, from a New England Minister to one at the South."

Those who opposed Dr. Taylor were very much alarmed at the fact that the young men entering the ministry from Yale, and being under Dr. Taylor's teachings, would be likely to be imbued with his doctrines, and thus the churches would have doctrines heterodox, from their point of view, preached to them. To deliberate upon some plan for overcoming this danger, 36 Connecticut Congregational ministers met at East (now South) Windsor on September 10, 1833. Their meeting was called "for the purpose of consultation and taking such measures as may be deemed expedient for the defense and promotion of evangelical principles." Two days they continued together in prayer and deliberation as to "what the power of God and His kingdom demanded."[2]

As a result they organized themselves into a Pastoral Union, formed a constitution, and appointed a board of trustees. The objects of the Union, as expressed in the second article of its constitution, are "the promotion of ministerial intercourse, fellowship, and pastoral usefulness; the promotion of revivals of religion, the defense of evangelical truth against prevailing errors in doctrine or in practice, and the raising up of sound and faithful ministers for the supply of the churches." A creed was formulated in twenty articles and provision made for the adoption of "such measures respecting the establishment of seminaries or periodical publications, as they shall judge conducive to the general objects of the Union." It has now about 200 members and meets the first of June.

THE CHARTER.

In May, 1834,[3] the legislature of Connecticut chartered the "Theological Institute of Connecticut." The trustees, chosen by the Pastoral Union, were made a "body politic and corporate," with the usual privileges, including the right to hold property not over $50,000 in value. The board were to be chosen annually by the Pastoral Union, were to

[1] "Semicentenary of Hartford Thelogical Seminary," pp. 16, 17.

[2] Letters on New Haven Theology, p. 79.

[3] In 1885 the legislature changed the seminary name to that which it now holds.

tion of the school, to appoint its faculty, "to regulate
nnual labor of the pupils," and to have exemption
ll personal estate and on real estate not exceeding
The object of the school is to be "the education of
for the ministry of the Gospel, in connection with
e a department for teaching the sciences, prepara-
d with a collegiate course of study." In 1859 the
led so as to permit the holding of property, from
should not exceed $12,000 per year, and in 1880 the
y the seminary could hold was again increased to
his last time, the trustees were divided into three
ich goes out of office each year.

EAST WINDSOR HILL.

eding winter some fifteen students had been taught
ast Windsor, and the corner stone of the seminary
there on May 13, 1834. On the same day, two pro-
ted into office, Dr. Bennet Tyler, professor of theol-
than Cogswell, professor of sacred history. On the
Dr. William Thompson entered upon his duties as
l literature and the regular course of studies began
Two stories of the seminary building were ready,
bout 2,000 volumes had been collected, chiefly from
t pastors.[1] The location of the seminary at East
ly due to the generous gifts of Dr. Erastus Ellsworth,
rchant in New York, had now retired to that quiet
He was a faithful friend to the seminary and "in
eakness and subsequent perils, Erastus Ellsworth
d to every call that taxed his purse, time, patience,
an of affairs."
e founders was that the school should be a "manual
nstitute." This was before the days of the modern
nce "an early grave or chronic weakness and disease
o be expected in case of many promising aspirants
there were to be "ample means for manual labor in
the prophets."[2]
ght return in a pecuniary way might be obtained, and
f choice alluvial land between the seminary and the
were purchased, and agricultural implements fur-
nts free of charge. Each student had an acre or less,
h the center of the field was to lead to a wharf on the
e produce was to be carried away. The result was
1835 the net profit was $212.70, in 1836, $383.62;
nd been made for fertilizing the soil, so the product

[1] ial, p. 19. [2] Semi-Centennial, p. 21.

fell off. The students' time was too much taken from their studies, and they were away during one of the most important seasons, so the attempt was given up, as was one for a carpenter's shop.[1]

THE THEOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF CONNECTICUT.

The trustees in their first report speak of the "prayerful solicitude and trembling hope" with which the decision was made, "under an imperious sense of duty to the Great Head of the Church and implicit reliance upon His blessing, to proceed to the establishment of a new seminary for the education of young men for the Gospel ministry." The experience of the first year was such as to "excite their gratitude and animate their hopes," and they note with pleasure "the increasing confidence and favor of the Christian public." The subscriptions up to May 1, 1835, amounted to $33,733, of which sum the largest single gift was one of $1,250 from Mr. David N. Lord, of New York City. The plan at first was that, after the buildings were completed, the $3,000, which it was thought would be sufficient for the income, should be derived from annual contributions. Permanent funds were dreaded, and the plan adopted worked well for a time. The first year there were 328 subscribers of sums from 14 cents to $750; but the commercial crisis coming soon after made a legacy of $11,000 from the estate of Miss Rebecca Waldo, of Worcester, Mass., very welcome, and after that no more objections to permanent endowments were made.[2]

In 1859, the annual subscribers had dropped to 7.[3] Miss Waldo's sisters having added to her bequest, so that it amounted to $14,000, it was set aside as an endowment of the chair of ecclesiastical history. Other gifts came; in 1836, through the influence of Dr. John Todd, then pastor at Groton, Mass., $1,000 from the estate of Deacon Stone, of Townshend, was appropriated for the library. Soon after, Mr. Abner Kingman, of Boston Highlands, gave a valuable lot of carefully selected books, neatly bound.[3] Some years later Mr. Richard Bond, of Boston Highlands, bequeathed the seminary $7,000, of which $4,000 were to be used in purchasing books. Besides these gifts less than $1,500 were spent for books by the trustees, while the school was at East Windsor. Another bequest early received was one of $2,000 from Mr. Alva Gilman, of Hartford, while Prof. Cogswell, besides serving without pay, gave $1,000 for the endowment of the chair of ecclesiastical history. The second professorship endowed was that of Christian theology, the funds for which came from a bequest of Mr. Chester Buckley and wife, of Wethersfield. An attempt was made to set aside the wills, but the late Hon. Seth Terry was able to compromise matters so as to save a large part of the gift. The third of the professorships, that of biblical literature, was endowed chiefly by the Rev. Dr. Asahel Nettleton, one of the founders of the school. He also gave $500 for the purchase of

[1] Semi-Centennial, p. 27. [2] Semi-Centennial, p. 25. [3] Semi-Centennial, p. 23.

atever should be realized from the sale of "Village pplied toward the support of indigent students. For he Hale and Everest funds have been very useful, ips from Mr. Abner Kingman.[1]

t of this, a second theological seminary in Connect- nuch criticism. The theological faculty at Yale ment denying that any good reason could be as- enterprise," to which the trustees answered, in the n "appeal to the public." This gave, among other a new school, the fact that of the corporation of f was composed of laymen, then elected by popular nts of the new seminary feared that its founders ing of existing ecclesiastical relations in the State," disclaimed any intention to cease "fellowshipping" of New Haven theology, this fear was not allayed was claimed by enemies of the seminary that the attendance there lessened the student's chance "for and the "seclusion and incongenial surroundings moderate equipment in funds, books, teachers, and l abundant material to unfriendly critics." The ew congenial families and social opportunities were uch disadvantages so many came was remarkable; igh in their chosen work still more so.[2]

THE FACULTY.

sident of the seminary, was born July 10, 1783, in In 1804 he was graduated from Yale, and, studying dained pastor of the church in South Britain, Conn. president of Dartmouth College, and in 1828 re- the pastorship of the Second Church in Portland, nected himself with the East Windsor Hill Semi- at its head till 1857. He did not long survive his d suddenly, May 14, 1858.

he truth, as revealed in the word of God, was his guiding l to old terms and methods, he was not blind to new aspects ssions for it. As a man, he was well furnished, and of com- r all the relations of life. As a pastor, he was impartial, er in all required ministries. As a preacher, he was always earnest, and sometimes he brought a magnetic influence to hearer. As a teacher, he was winsome and helpful in develop- imperious and positive in stating it. In form, of a medium ulders and full chest; a ruddy face, susceptible of varied that often kindled with feeling, and a physique remarkable yler stood among the noble Christian workers of his day the s and powers of a very high order.

, 25, 26.

20. Governor, lieutenant governor, and six senior senators.

, 22, 23.

Dr. Cogswell, the second of this faculty, was a graduate of Harvard, and served ten years without pay.

Dr. William Thompson, the Nestor of the school, over which he watched more than fifty years till his death in February, 1889, was born February 17, 1806, at Goshen, Conn. Fear of the new divinity at Yale led his father to send him to Union College, where he was graduated. He then went to Andover Seminary. His seminary course was interrupted by two years' teaching, and it is recorded that "he was one of the few theological students in those days who became conversant with the German tongue." In September, 1833, he was ordained pastor at North Bridgewater, Mass., whence he was called, against the desires of his people, to the seminary at East Windsor Hill a year later. To that institution he gave his life, and "constantly sacrificed his personal advancement in learning and in influence to present service, whose call could not be silenced. He built himself into the seminary whose cause he had espoused, instead of rearing a temple of individual fame upon a separate foundation."[1] His characteristic traits are said to have been profound humility, penetrating sagacity, brave loyalty to truth and duty, and a rare harmony with the will of God.

Dr. Asahel Nettleton held a semiofficial connection with the institution from its commencement. Born in North Killingworth, April 21, 1783, a graduate of Yale in 1809, he studied for the ministry; but his health not permitting him to enter the pastorate, he was ordained as an evangelist. As such he "labored in revivals in different parts of the State, and often in waste places, with great power from on high." His winters he spent in Virginia, on account of his health; his summers in East Windsor, till his death in 1844. To his influence may be ascribed the fact that so many graduates of the seminary have become foreign missionaries.[2]

Under these men the seminary received that "distinctive feature," its biblical teaching. "It is the conviction of this seminary," says the Rev. J. H. Goodell,[3] "that without controversy, and with proof as manifest as it is manifold, God has spoken to man, and in such a way that we may know what his utterances are." Believing this, "the grand intent is to teach the student to find out for himself what the word of God is."

THE ACADEMY.

The trustees had from the charter the additional authorization to establish a classical school. Some wished to found this as early as 1836 but not until 1850 was anything done. There seemed need of a good fitting school for college and for life, and the seminary hoped

[1] Memorial pamphlet of Prof. Wm. Thompson, D. D.; addresses by C. D. Hartranft, G. L. Walker, and A. W. Hazen.

[2] Semi-Centennial, p. 55.

[3] Semi-Centennial, p. 67.

in such a school would be predisposed, in case they ministry, to prosecute those studies in the place in aid the foundations of their education. Consequently r Hill Academy was opened in 1851. Fifty pupils first year, and for ten years the academy was in opera- igh work. It was finally closed because of the failure r it. "The trustees chose to discontinue the school its good name to be tarnished."[1]

REMOVAL TO HARTFORD.

years of life prejudices against the seminary had vay, but a grave cause of anxiety to its friends was ccessibility of its position. This increased as time road was on the opposite side of the river; steamboats East Windsor, and the stage was withdrawn, so that issionary, on a visit to the United States, said that the ng from Old Windsor, on the west bank of the Con- Windsor Hill was greater than any he had experi- e or Armenia.[2] The number of students was falling es decided to invite the corporation of Yale College verture for uniting the two seminaries." The num- at New Haven was also declining, and the proposal conference was held and the East Windsor Hill that the united school be at New Haven, that the seminaries should resign and new ones be chosen, ees of the Theological Institute of Connecticut should tes for professional chairs, from whom the Yale cor- elect. The first two were granted; the third was ther difficulties arising, the project came to naught.[3] al fellows of Yale College appointed a committee to r of a union, but the trustees of the institute had e it to Hartford, "in order to open to it a wider field to confer upon it greater privileges," and so, it must subject was finally dropped. With union still more ave followed than we find in the two separate schools

owever, had a sore disappointment in its failure to he amount thought necessary to meet the outlay ange. Much help was received from men from Massa- t admitted to the Pastoral Union, though less aid l came in later years. It was thought that if a Massa- re chosen professor his endowment would come thence, l Mr. James B. Hosmer gave $50,000 for the chair.

al, pp. 27-29.
al, p. 29.
[3] Semi-Centennial, pp. 30, 31.
[4] Semi-Centennial, p. 32.

HOSMER HALL—HARTFORD THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY.

In 1871 the National Congregational Council at Oberlin tried, with the following resolution, to help on an unsuccessful scheme to move the seminary to one of the Western States:

"That we recognize thankfully the valuable services which the Theological Seminary at Hartford has done in the past and that we heartily commend its system of instruction; but, in view of the fact that two institutions of a similar character are no longer needed in close proximity to each other, its consolidation with one of the western seminaries, if such a measure be practicable, would be viewed with satisfaction by our churches and would, we believe, greatly enlarge its sphere of usefulness." [1]

HOSMER HALL.

For fifteen years after the removal to Hartford the seminary occupied three rented houses in Prospect street, and for a time a fourth on Main street. The houses on Prospect street, one of which had formerly been the home of Col. Jeremiah Wadsworth, of Revolutionary fame, were far from convenient, and the building of Hosmer Hall in 1879 was hailed with joy. This building gave the seminary a permanent home. It was the gift of Mr. James B. Hosmer and stands on Broad street. All the rooms are under one roof, the library building being in a wing. There is, however, a well-equipped gymnasium separate from the main building. The removal to new quarters was signalized by an increase of students and the establishment of a graduate or fourth-year class in 1881. Since the removal of the library to its new quarters in Hosmer Hall, it has increased with great rapidity. A large part of the accessions has come from the generous gifts of Mr. Newton Case, of Hartford. In 1877 there were 6,700 volumes; in 1880, 12,000; in 1884, 38,000; and now there are nearly 60,000 volumes and 25,000 pamphlets.

The use of it is free to the students of all the courses, to ministers, to any responsible person pursuing special scientific study, and to the public generally.

The new Case Memorial Library, a building begun by Mr. Newton Case before his death, in 1890, has been completed with a bequest given by him, and was dedicated January 18, 1893. It is one of the best appointed library buildings in the country. The stack-rooms, a thoroughly fire-proof construction, have a capacity of 250,000 volumes, while the facilities for special and "seminar" work are ample. It is intended to furnish apparatus for special research, as well as for general theological study. The collection of works for general reference, encyclopædias, periodicals, etc., is unusually large, and all the principal theological departments are well represented by particular works. For the specialist there is considerable material in the departments of Reformation History and of historical sources in general, in Patristics, in

[1] Semi-Centennial, p. 34.

ature, in Liturgics, and in Bibliography, while the
s of Lutherana and English Hymnology are unrivaled

ry is now librarian, having succeeded Mr. Ernest C.
of Princeton College, to whom the author is greatly
material of this sketch.[2]

STUDENTS.

ofessors who have labored in the seminary, the Rev.
and the Rev. R. G. Vermilye demand a passing men-
otion to its best interests.

urse occupies three years. In general, the work in all
is continued in some form throughout this period.
asis is placed in the junior year on exegetical theology,
ar, on historical and systematic theology, and in the
ractical theology.

nt of studies involves the principle of central prescribed
pal subjects, combined with an extensive system of
rom which the students shall select a specified amount
proval of the faculty. The relative quantity of elective
om the beginning of the course to the end, and in each
bed courses are chiefly placed in the first term. The
o planned that the entire curriculum includes from
urs of class-work for each student, of which 1,000 are
prescribed courses include both extended work in
usually emphasized, and also outline or introductory
hich are more fully treated among the electives. As a
ective courses are continuations or amplifications of
gun in the prescribed courses. In exceptional cases
ves the right to prescribe what elective courses shall

ng of the year all applicants are personally examined
to their religious experience and their motives for
stry or other Christian service. They are expected to
membership in a Christian church and of graduation

llege graduates will be admitted to the regular classes
except in special cases where those not graduates
ves to the faculty, by examination or otherwise, as
ivalent for a college course. In no case will students
e regular course who have not a sufficient knowledge
understandingly the Greek New Testament.

, 1892-'93.

this opportunity to acknowledge the services of Prof. Arthur
illiston Walker in reading the proof-sheets of this sketch.

The first class consisted of 9, and in 1881 the number of students had reached only 28. Then the effect of the new building began to be felt, and 1888–89, 47 were in attendance from sixteen different colleges. Of the students, the following are among the best known, Cushing Eells, 1837, missionary to Oregon and founder of Whitman Seminary; Augustus C. Thompson, 1838, a well-known religious writer; H. M. Field, of the New York Evangelist; Lavalette Perrin, 1843; W. A. Benton, 1846, missionary to Aleppo, Syria; Josiah Tyler, 1848, and H. A. Wilder, 1848, missionaries to the Zulus; Paul A. Chadbourne, 1851, president of the University of Wisconsin and of Williams College; Charles Hartwell, 1852, missionary to China; H. M. Adams, 1854, missionary to the Gaboon, Africa; S. C. Pixley, 1855, who translated the Bible into the Zulu tongue; J. K. Nutting, 1856, president of Tougaloo University, Mississippi; E. C. Bissell, 1859, formerly foreign missionary, for 11 years professor in the seminary, now professor in McCormick Theological Seminary, Chicago; E. Robbins, 1859, and H. M. Bridgman, 1860, missionaries to the Zulus; C. C. C. Painter, of the "American Missionary;" W. H. H. Murray, 1864; S. W. Dike, 1866, well known for his writings on sociology; A. W. Clark, 1868, missionary to Austria; F. H. Allen, 1873, author of "Biography of Great Adventurers"; and W. H. Sanders, missionary to Bihé, West Africa.

SPECIAL COURSES.

Courses of one, two, or three years in several or single branches will be arranged by the Faculty to meet the wants of ministers who wish to supplement their training and of any persons who desire to pursue scientific studies in existing departments or to fit themselves for special Christian work. Elocution, music, and physical culture are not considered as courses, either separately or collectively.

Candidates for special courses must be of unexceptionable character and must be unanimously approved by the Faculty. For entrance into the departments of Encyclopædia or Exegesis, a college diploma or its equivalent is necessary. For the departments of Historical, Systematic, Experiential, or Practical Theology, a general education corresponding to the collegiate standard in English courses is required. Very exceptional cases, not meeting these requirements, may be received on probation, if unanimously approved by the Faculty.

The schedule of hours is carefully drawn up, so that the appointments in each topic are grouped into as short a period as possible. This secures continuity of attention and effort for both professors and students, and prevents the latter from having more than about four topics before them at any one time. The total number of hours per week required of each student is from fifteen to seventeen.[1]

On May 7, 1884, were held services commemorative of the completion of the first half century of the seminary's history. On May 10,

[1] Annual Catalogue, 1892–93.

ster D. Hartranft was inaugurated president of the
lice which had been vacant since Dr. Tyler's death.
n delivered contains a clear statement of the aims of
d is worth quoting:

is the absolute supremacy of Christ's views of God and the uni-
world.

y is the absolute head of all sciences. It concerns itself (1) with
with cosmology, or the revelation of God in the universe; (3) with
elation of His will in the Bible. There are three great fields into
on of theology must move: (1) research; (2) inculcation of the
and training of individuals to undertake the same; (3) publica-
esearch.

nty of spirit over reason, soul over body.

at branch of theology which concerns the revelation contained in
propose to make our beginning. This is to be divided into
l, historical, systematic, experiential, and practical. The main
inary, as it now exists, is the educational one. The institution
d exemplify a scientific handling of the Scriptures, recognizing
thentic revelation given in genetic and historic form; it also
ical as well as divine aim of all science for the development
the elevation of men in spirit, soul, and body.

e founding of fellowships, the strengthening of the
the founding of institutes after the manner of the
y system, and the offering the privileges of the semi-
n teachers and journalists, to those who desire special
to the Christian women, graduates of colleges, who
form of Christian work.[2] Following this last recom-
seminary, in the fall of 1889, opened its doors to women
ns as men, being the first institution in the country so
intended especially for those "desirous of preparing
Christian teaching, for the missionary field, and for any
ther than the pastorate."

periodical called the Hartford Seminary Record was
890, under the auspices of the faculty, and has attained
ulation. Its purpose is to be a medium not only of
tion between all members of the constituency of the
r the publication of material in any way connected with
heological thought and education. The editors for the
Prof. Waldo S. Pratt, Prof. Arthur L. Gillett, 1883,
Perry, 1885, with Rev. T. M. Hodgdon, 1888, and Mr.
d, as associate editors. Every issue contains the fol-
nts: editorials, articles, book notes, alumni news, and
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se of one year is now open to graduates of any theological semi-
llege graduates. Proficiency in the studies of this year leads to
B.

2-93, there were two fellows, four candidates for the degree of
te student, twelve seniors, nine middlers, twelve juniors, and two
urty-two in all. Of these five were women.

The faculty of the seminary is large and able, there being twelve resident instructors, four tutors, and eight lecturers. The Carew lectureship, established by the late Joseph Carew, of South Hadley Falls, Mass., annually provides for from four to six lectures by men of the highest rank, and the lectureship on foreign missions provides for ten or twelve lectures annually. Every second year "a student of conspicuous attainment is appointed from the senior class as William Thompson fellow for two years, with the privilege of studying abroad." He receives $600 annually. On the alternate years the John S. Willis fellowship is given upon the same conditions.

Prizes are given of $50 each to the senior showing greatest proficiency in New Testament Greek, to the senior presenting the best essay on some topic in evangelistic theology (Hartranft prize), to the middler submitting the best essay on some topic in systematic theology (Bennet Tyler prize), and to the member of the junior class making greatest absolute progress in Hebrew (William Thompson prize). A scholarship of $200 is awarded for the middle year to that student who has maintained the highest standing in the junior year. Three entrance prize scholarships of $250 each are awarded, one to a man and two to women. The latter are called the Maria H. Welles and Elizabeth Butler Thompson scholarships, respectively.

A school for church musicians was organized in 1890 under the general auspices of Hartford Theological Seminary, designed to afford the very best advantages for earnest musical students, especially for those in preparation for church work. The regular course of three years, when fully arranged, will provide for Christian students, who are properly equipped for specialized study, and who intend to become professional church musicians, whether as organists, choir masters, or singers, a careful training in the theory and practice of organ-playing, piano-playing, singing, composition, etc., with varied instruction in the whole history and theory of music, and in its special adaptations to public worship. A normal course for the training of choir masters, covering two years, is now being given. Special courses, open to any music student, are now offered in organ-playing, piano-playing, voice-building, singing, sight-reading, harmony, counterpoint, musical history, etc.

The Hosmer Hall Choral Union, affiliated with the seminary, an oratorio society of over 200 members, organized in 1880, meets in the seminary building and gives from five to seven concerts annually.

The invested funds of the seminary amount to $400,000.

In the winter of 1889–90, the professors began to give courses of lectures open to the people of Hartford. In 1892, the seminary, in union with other institutions of learning in the State, formed a State council for university extension. As a result of the success of the lectures given, the Society for Education Extension was organized in 1892 to extend the benefits of education to those who can not make use of ordi-

its programme for 1892–93 it presents three divisions
rk:

sity extension lectures, consisting of twenty-nine
ts in history and geography, philosophy, psychology,
re and language, political and social science, physical
ce, and art.

l class instruction, elementary and advanced, in fine
s, languages, and mathematics.

es on topics in literature, history of culture, theology,
e, law, art, and technology. This division presents
of lectures.

believes that the Holy Spirit is as mighty to work
g men now as in the most golden periods of history,
st channels for His working are a knowledge of the
ne consecration of heart."

—THE BERKELEY DIVINITY SCHOOL.[1]

l city of Middletown, the seat of Wesleyan University,
is seminary for the education of ministers in the Prot-
Church. The buildings are situated at the corner of
gton streets, and the land extends on Main street to
pal Church. There are five buildings. The first is a
brick house on the corner, formerly the residence of
uel F. Jarvis. This is occupied by Bishop Williams,
hool, as his residence; contains the library and class
nd floor, and on the third floor and in the attic, rooms
hind this and extending south to the chapel is a two-
which was built in 1860, and is intended to be only
ntains 12 student rooms. The chapel, built of Port-
attractive edifice, given in 1861 by Mrs. Mary W. A.
d solely for religious purposes. It has seats for the
nts and about 60 free sittings.

a two-story brick building, fronting on Main street,
8, and accommodates the students' commons and has
nts in the second story and attic. Behind the corner
wooden gymnasium.

Williams was rector at Schenectady he had several
nts who followed him on his removal to Hartford as
ty College. With this nucleus he determined to form
artment in connection with Trinity, and instruction
This was given by Bishop Williams, the Rev. Dr.
essor at Trinity, the Rev. A. C. Coxe, and the Rev.
later rector of Calvary Church, New York City. Six-
ntered the school, and the increase of numbers and

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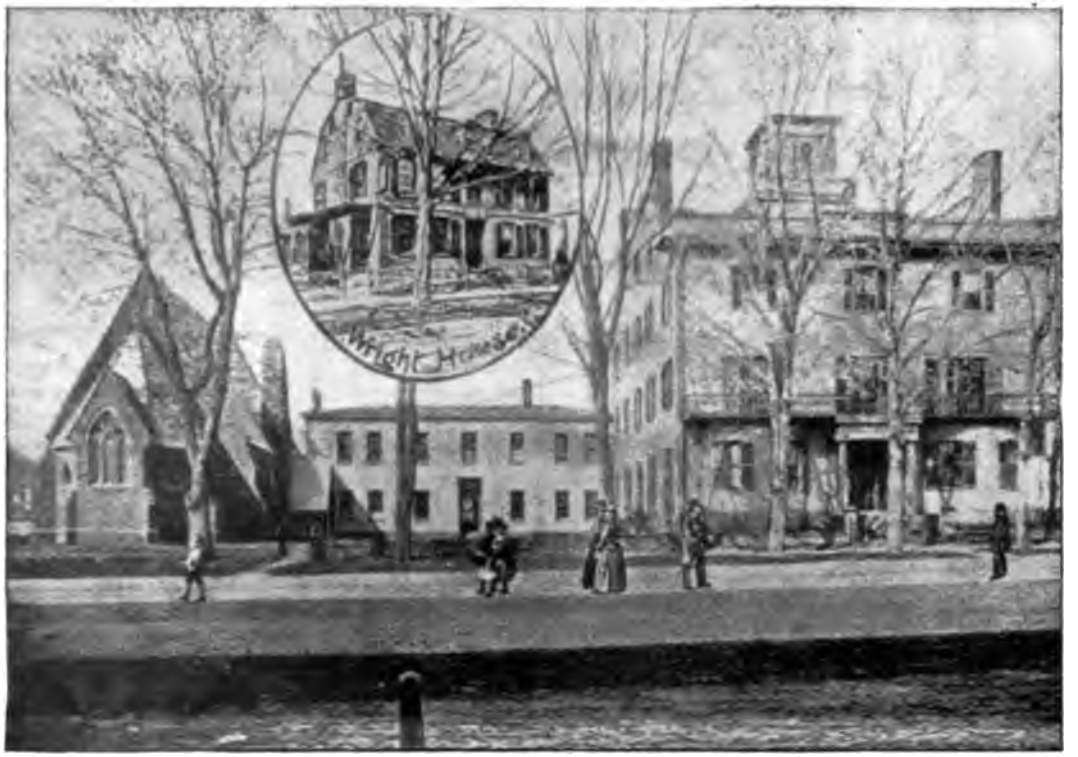
sex County, 1884, pp. 123–126. Rev. Frederic Gardiner, D. D.



BERKELEY DIVINITY SCHOOL, MIDDLETOWN, CONNECTICUT.

the growing importance of the school made some permanent organization desirable. In 1854 the general assembly granted the school a charter, with a board of 11 trustees. Of these, 6 were to be clergymen and 5 laymen of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Connecticut. The convention of the diocese was given power to fill vacancies, and the trustees were to meet for organization when $40,000 had been subscribed for an endowment.[1] Soon after this it was determined to sever all connection with Trinity College and place the school at Middletown in view of the generous offers made by citizens of the town. It seems doubtful, however, if the increased endowment has made up for the loss of influence consequent upon separation from the college.

Bishop Williams removed to Middletown, having previously resigned the presidency of Trinity College, and remained at the head of the school, as he has continued to do unto this day. He is the founder and careful guardian of the school to which he has given so much of his noble life. In August, 1854, the trustees met at his house for organization. On the 19th of the following January the course of study was arranged and negotiations for the purchase of a site begun. On April 18, 1855, the board voted unanimously to buy for $10,000 land from the estate of the Rev. Dr. Jarvis. The school rented the building on the property at once and negotiations for the purchase of the land were kept up for several years, till Mr. E. S. Hall gave the property and $10,000 toward the school's endowment, provided that it should never be moved from Middletown. In 1856 the Rev. Edwin Harwood, now rector of Trinity Church, New Haven, became the first resident professor besides Bishop Williams, and the same year Rev. T. F. Davies, now Bishop of Michigan, was made professor of Hebrew. The other chairs were filled as follows: Bishop Williams was dean, professor of doctrinal theology and ritual, with authority to appoint a librarian; the Rev. S. W. Coit, D. D., then rector of St. Paul's Church, Troy, N. Y., spent several weeks in Middletown during each year lecturing as professor of ecclesiastical history and became resident professor in 1873; Dr. Harwood was professor of the literature and interpretation of Scripture till 1859 when he went to New Haven; the Rev. F. J. Goodwin, D. D., was professor of the evidences of Christianity until ill-health made him give up the chair in 1867, two years before his death; the Rev. A. M. Littlejohn, then rector of Trinity Church, New Haven, came up weekly as professor of pastoral theology till his removal to Brooklyn

[1] The original trustees were the Rt. Rev. T. C. Brownell, D. D.; the Rt. Rev. John Williams, D. D.; the Rev. D. R. Goodwin, D. D., president of Trinity College; the Rev. F. J. Goodwin, D. D., rector of the Church of the Holy Trinity (then Christ Church), Middletown; the Rev. Thos. C. Pitkin; the Rev. Jacob L. Clark, D. D., of Waterbury; Edward S. Hall, of New York; Ebenezer Jackson, of Middletown; Wm. T. Lee, of Hartford; Chas. A. Lewis, of New London; Leverett Candee, of New Haven. Bishop Williams and Mr. Hall are the only ones alive (1890). The Rev. Wm. Jarvis was secretary and treasurer until 1858; then A. H. Jackson, M. D., of Middletown, until his death, in 1869; and then his brother, C. E. Jackson, until the present.

. E. A. Washburn, one of the most eminent of broad
r of St. John's Church, Hartford, came over to fill the
y of the church until his removal to New York, and
T. Russell, now principal of St. Margaret's School,
the chair of elocution which he still holds.

as the first alumnus of the school to be placed on its
chair, that of Hebrew, has always been held by an
signed to enter the pastorate in 1861. After Dr. Har-
New Haven he was chosen non-resident professor of
o instruction. In his former chair, the Rev. Frederic
ne, was elected but as he could not accept the Rev.
s chosen. He served till he was retired as professor
wn request, in 1882, on account of old age.

ütter offered to give a chapel, provided that the seats
students should be free; that there should be daily
g term time; that services on Sundays and holy days
ere in hours with those of the neighboring church, and
hould be under the bishop's immediate charge. These
accepted. The Shaler and Hall Quarry Company, of
e freestone for the building.

bbert, a student, was made instructor in Hebrew in
rdination in 1862, professor, which post he resigned in
rectorship.

the Rev. Henry de Koven, D. D., who had been dis-
ties for some time, was appointed professor of homilet-
y and chaplain, and a vote of thanks was tendered
s valuable and gratuitous services." He resided at
letown, and in 1869 resigned his charge on account of
nt to Europe, which was his home until his death in

left at the bishop's discretion to employ the Rev. H. A.
ant in instruction. Soon after he was appointed pro-
ain. The latter he gave up in 1876 because of ill-
ued giving instruction until within a fortnight of his
82.

ool was primarily intended for Connecticut students,
other States, and the Wright house, then belonging to
ught in 1868, to give increased accommodations. The
e chiefly from the liberality of the Alsop family, who
t benefactors of the school. This house was built 1745–
Wright, with brick from Newfield, Conn., and was the
dletown of American brick. The school still needs in-
and better quarters for it and more convenient rooms
1868 the Rev. Frederic Gardiner, D. D., then connected

63) being taken towards the erection of a building for library

with the Episcopal church in Middletown, was added to the faculty, and, in the next year, leaving his rectorate, was made professor of the literature and interpretation of the Old Testament. Later he became librarian, and in 1882 when Prof. Fuller retired, he was transferred to the chair of literature and interpretation of the New Testament, and his former duties were transferred to the professor of Hebrew. Prof. Gardiner continued to teach until his death in 1889 when the Rev. John H. Barbour succeeded him. In February, 1873, the Rev. Dr. Coit moved to Middletown as permanent professor and served in that capacity up to his death in 1885. He was then succeeded by the Rev. W. F. Nichols, and he, resigning in 1887, was succeeded by the Rev. W. A. Johnson, who was transferred from his former professorship.

In January, 1874, the Rev. John Binney was made professor of Hebrew, and taught Chaldee and Syriac as electives. In 1876, he was made chaplain, and in 1882, the literature and interpretation of the Old Testament was added to his chair. The writer is largely indebted to his kindness for this account of Berkeley.[1] In 1883 the Rev. William A. Johnson was made Prof. Yardley's successor as professor of Christian evidences and homiletics, and on his being transferred to another chair in 1887 the Rev. Dr. Sylvester Clarke succeeded him.

Before Dr. Coit's removal to Middletown 4,000 volumes of his library had been for some time deposited with the school, and 10,000 more were secured soon afterwards. With these the library now contains somewhat over 22,000 volumes. It consists largely of theological works and which are lent freely to all. It is stored inconveniently in class rooms, and a fund for new books is needed, as its only source of increase is from the donations of friends. The endowment, which is as yet insufficient, has been the gift of many friends, among whom are especially to be mentioned Mr. E. S. Hall, of New York, the late Mrs. Mary W. A. Mütter and others of the Alsop family, the late Miss Margaret Belden, of Norwalk, the late Mrs. F. A. Russell, of Middletown, and especially the late J. E. Sheffield, of New Haven. The general endowment fund is $275,015.08; the Belden legacy, $14,373.59; the Mütter professorship, $25,000; the Susan Bronson legacy, $500; the Alsop memorial fund, $3,000; the Richard Mansfield scholarship, $1,000; the chapel endowment fund, $10,000; the James Scovil scholarship, $1,000; the G. E. Curtis legacy, $1,000; the G. W. Nichols fund, $5,000; the Williams English scholarship, $500; the Bishop Williams professorship fund, $30,000; the Toucey scholarship, about $3,000; the Jarvis scholarship, about $10,000; the Coit library, about $6,000; and subscriptions to the "Williams library," about $14,000. The total amount is $399,388.67. About 375 have graduated from Berkeley, of whom three have been missionaries to the Indians, and some are to be found in every part of the Union. Among them are the Right Rev. William W. Niles, of New

[1] The proof-sheets of this sketch were kindly read by Prof. Binney.

Right Rev. Elisha S. Thomas, of Kansas, the Right
t, of southern Ohio, and Prof. Samuel Hart, of Trinity
a society of the associate alumni. Many of the stu-
ered 29 in the last catalogue, on Sundays officiate as
ble parishes of the neighborhood.

ulty is composed of the Rt. Rev. John Williams, D. D.,
fessor of Doctrinal and Pastoral Theology, and the
Rev. Samuel Fuller, D. D., Professor Emeritus, the
y, D. D., Sub-Dean, Professor of Hebrew and of the
nterpretation of the Old Testament, and Chaplain,
Allen Johnson, M. A., Professor of Church History,
r Clarke, D. D., Professor of Christian Evidences and
ev. John Humphrey Barbour, M. A., Professor of the
nterpretation of the New Testament, and Librarian,
ncis T. Russell, M. A., Professor of Elocution.

s for priests' orders, with full qualifications, accord-
of the Protestant Episcopal Church, are admitted."
f Hebrew is required for admission, and the course,
e years, is well arranged and comprehensive. While
authors, such as Hooker and Pearson, are studied,
keep up with the latest researches and most recent
partments of theological science." Lectures form a
work, and courses of side-reading are recommended.
es are held daily, with holy communion on Sundays
The school year has one term, from September to June,
Christmas and Easter. Rooms and tuition are free,
d in certain cases to persons who need it.

ance of its venerable head, the Berkeley Divinity
up a cultured ministry for the church it represents.

O

[Whole Number 194

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 3, 1893

CONTRIBUTIONS TO AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL HISTORY
EDITED BY HERBERT B. ADAMS

No. 15

THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION

IN

DELAWARE

BY

LYMAN P. POWELL, A. B.

Fellow in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy at the University of Pennsylvania, and Staff Lecturer on History to the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching

WASHINGTON
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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., January 3, 1893.

SIR: The accompanying monograph was prepared by Lyman P. Powell, of the University of Pennsylvania. His efforts to collect material for the history of education in Delaware, his native State, have been quickened by several years' experience as a teacher in her schools and by a personal acquaintance with her most prominent citizens.

A logical rather than a chronological order is followed, thus placing in the boldest light the continuity of educational history. The first four chapters treat of colonial days and locate the genesis of education at the middle of the seventeenth century. They prove that the Swedish, Dutch, and English settlers established schools in conjunction with churches and either employed professional schoolmasters or bestowed upon one person the functions of schoolmaster, pàrson, chorister, bell-ringer, and, among the Dutch, comforter of the sick.

Education in the towns from their foundation to the present time is next considered. The author then sketches the history of two academies whose careers have been eminently successful and exceedingly interesting. The first of these, the Wilmington Conference Academy, established in 1873, has for years been the center of Peninsular Methodism, and the largest, as well as most flourishing, school in the State. Newark Academy was established in 1767, at New London, Pa., by Francis Alison. Of those who had been his students four became signers of the Declaration of Independence, four, Congressmen, four, governors of States, and many, prominent characters of the Revolution. The school was removed to Newark in 1767 and has maintained an almost continuous existence to the present time.

The next chapter treats of Delaware College, which was founded in 1833. Its development has been hampered until recently by meager finances and a lack of patronage due, among other things, to its geographical situation and to a consequent doubt of the necessity for its existence. Its history, however, is full of interesting facts, and the list of alumni is noteworthy. Many famous men have served as pro-

itution. Among them were the eminent Presbyte-
Dr. E. W. Gilbert; the mathematician, William A.
onomer, Daniel Kirkwood; the classical scholar,
l the chemist, Eben Norton Horsford.
n is next traced from its origin in 1796, when an act
e general assembly appropriating for the establish-
hools all money accruing from marriage and tavern
progress was made, however, until the passage of
w of 1829, and even then the failure to provide for a
dent, among other things, retarded its growth. The
resent public school system in 1875 gave a great
on. The office of State superintendent established
abolished in 1887 and county superintendents were

ant factors in the education of the Negro have been
ciation for the Education of Colored People, organ-
the unremunerated, though untiring, services of
Esq.
; to her position between States North and South
schools, has permitted her children to be led away
y educational advantages which she could not offer.
tion has suffered as well as the academies and Dela-
e reader who would appreciate the struggle for exis-
y of higher education in Delaware must ever bear in
of geographical situation.
mitted.

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

NOBLE,
ry of the Interior.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN DELAWARE.

CHAPTER I.

EDUCATION AMONG THE SWEDES.

INTRODUCTION.

The genesis of education in Delaware must be sought amidst the struggles of the Swedes, the Dutch, and the English for the banks of the Delaware. To separate the earliest educational history of the colonies which emerged from this conflict is almost a hopeless task, for they were at first much alike in customs and in government. Colonists devoted to the reclamation of the forest primeval and to the maintenance of the struggle for existence seldom give thought to schools. But the early settlers of Delaware, from the first, made praiseworthy attempts to instruct their children in the rudiments of common learning and Christian theology. This they did because they came from Sweden and Holland, at that time the farthest advanced in general education of all the countries of Europe.

The first permanent settlement on the banks of the Delaware was made in 1638, when the Swedes and Finns erected Christina Fort near the mouth of Christina Creek. A settled form of government was not established, however, until Printz, the Swedish governor, in 1643, erected a residence on the island of Tinicum, a few miles below Philadelphia.[1] The Swedes ruled the region until 1655; the Dutch from 1655 to 1664; and then it came under English dominion. In 1681 William Penn received a charter for the territory between 41° and 43° north latitude, and running 5 degrees west from the Delaware River, and in the following year the Duke of York ceded to him the three lower counties on the Delaware.[2] These counties, with the reluctant consent of Penn, established an independent government under Markham in 1691, but were reunited under Governor Benjamin Fletcher two years later by William and Mary. In 1702 Pennsylvania convened her legislature apart, and the two colonies were never again united, although a single executive sufficed for both until the close of the Revolution.[3]

[1] Bancroft, History of the United States, I, 503.
[2] *Ibid*, I, 552, 556.
[3] *Ibid*, II, 24, 25, 30.

THE HISTORIC BACKGROUND.

wedish colony was planted on the Delaware there
tem of public education in Sweden, but the church
ucating the young and home instruction was so wide-
l chronicler remarks: "In 1637 there was not in the
n a peasant child who could not read and write."
den is a State institution, and through it the State
led education. Formerly the duties of minister and
frequently combined, and where this was not the
ster was an officer in the church, either assistant
precentor, clerk, or, as sometimes happened, bell
Churches were oftentimes used as schoolhouses,
ns instruction was given to pupils in their homes by
sters.[1] This system was transplanted to the Swed-
here we shall see it springing up in all its essential

INSTRUCTIONS TO SETTLERS.

tlement of 1638 was the outgrowth of a plan formu-
Adolphus as early as 1626.[2] Despairing of religious
e, he sanctioned the planting of a colony in the New
uropean complications, under the leadership of Wil-
was stated, as an inducement to join the colony, that
ches will flourish through it and be sustained, and
who have learned something will be promoted to
sitions."[3] Gustavus Adolphus was killed at the
n 1632, and therefore never saw his project, "the
" carried into effect. But Oxenstiern, his apprecia-
gurated the scheme, and it is to him that the first
ation (1638) on the banks of the Delaware is due.[4]
veden, in 1640, gave to Henry Hockhanmer and com-
rivilege for the establishment of a new colony in New
pears the following provision for education:

colony shall be obliged to support at all times as many minis-
s as the number of inhabitants shall seem to require, and to
this purpose, persons who have at heart the conversion of the
Christianity.'

ructions issued to Governor Printz, August 15, 1642,
: "To support a proper ecclesiastical discipline; to
nd virtuous education of the young."[6]

---

ory of Education in Pennsylvania, 3.

Pennsylvania, 53. Penna. Archives, second series, v, 760.
e Swedes on the Delaware, 21.

EDUCATION OF THE INDIANS.

It was also enjoined upon them to treat the Indians kindly and to labor for their conversion to Christianity. The chaplain of the party, Rev. John Campanius, was the first to attempt this, and his success is thus described by his grandson, Thomas Campanius Holm: "He generally succeeded in making them understand" the trinity, the fall of man, the atonement, the incarnation, and the resurrection. "The Indians took so much interest in these instructions, and seemed so well disposed to embrace the Christian religion, that Mr. Campanius was induced to learn their language, that he might the more effectually bring them acquainted with these great truths. He translated the catechism into their language."[1]

Rudman, Biork, and Pastorius, subsequent pastors, also testify to the willingness of the Indians to receive Christian instruction. The fondness of the Indians for theology and the catechism increased and they "engaged Charles Springer to teach their children to read it."[2]

CONDITION OF THE SWEDES AT THE CLOSE OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

The little handful of Swedes whom their last governor, Rising, left behind him on the Delaware increased in forty years (1655 to 1693) to nearly 1,000 souls.[3] The Rev. Mr. Rudman, writing to a friend in Sweden, October 20, 1697, remarks:

> We live scattered among the English and Quakers, yet our language is preserved as pure as anywhere in Sweden. There are about 1,200 persons that speak it. There are also Welshmen who speak their own mother tongue, besides Englishmen, Dutchmen, and some Frenchmen.

The Swedes[4] at this time were generally husbandmen, living "with one another in peace and quietness," and flourishing under the kind treatment of the Dutch and English, successively conquerors of the region.[5] Rev. Eric Biork (Bjork or Björk), writing to his superiors in Sweden, October 29, 1697, thus describes their economic condition: "The people live very well without being compelled to too much or too severe labor. The taxes are very light. * * * There are no poor in this country."[6] Accompanying these satisfactory economic conditions there was a general diffusion of intelligence. "Almost everyone can read," writes Mr. Rudman. Mr. Biork writes: "I can not mention without astonishment, but to the honor of these people, that we hardly found

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[1] Clay, Annals of the Swedes on the Delaware, 20, 27. Luther's Shorter catechism was thus doubtless the first work translated into the Indian language in America. Should not John Campanius rather than John Eliot be called in Bancroft's words, "the morning star of missionary enterprise?"

[2] *Ibid*, 68. Hotchkin, Early Clergy of Pennsylvania and Delaware, 17.

[3] Acrelius: History of New Sweden, Introduction, XVII.

[4] Clay, 71. Holm's New Sweden.

[5] Clay, 48, 49. Acrelius, 187, 188.

[6] Clay, 67. Watson: Annals of Philadelphia, II, 233.

books; but they were so anxious for the improvement that they lent them to one another, so that they can well."[1] The intense love of learning thus displayed isfaction equally as intense with the scanty means for . Biork compares the educational advantages with and calls the former "irregular." "This state of es, "is not to be wondered at; for their ministers, last, were old and infirm, and could not pay proper lucation of youth."[2]

overnor of the province allowed the Swedes perfect us and educational affairs. Their economic condition ere were no poor among them. The Indians, far from lamored for peace and the catechism. All circum- ave three, conspired to promote education. These books, of schoolmasters, and of schoolhouses.

THE LITERATURE IN THE COLONY.

s in 1700 that he has at last established a school at iladelphia), "with an able teacher at the head of it, parish clerk;" and that he hopes soon to obtain books.[3] books to reach New Sweden, after the first settle- 1696 by the mother country.[4] Penn, however, had em catechisms, an English Bible, and a few other sh traveler, Anders Printz, visited the colony a few pon his return to Sweden described to John Thelin, ttenburg (Götheborg) the temporal prosperity, but ational destitution of the colonists. Mr. Thelin laid ing Charles XI, who at once directed him to write em the royal desire to send ministers and "godly uld but apprise him of the number needed. The colo- pen of Charles Springer, asked in reply, for two Swed- rned and moral, so as to be capable of instructing d for "three books of sermons, twelve Bibles, forty- one hundred tracts, with two hundred catechisms, ners; for which when received we promise punctual King sent them three clergymen, Andrew Rudman, onas Auren, and the following books, as a donation:[5]

rinted by Vankis and 20 by Keiser.

Homilies; 2 Cabinets of Treasure; 2 of Moeller's; 2 of Luthe-

reatises of different kinds, viz, 12 by Kellingius; Garden of ; Atlice, etc.

ommon Prayer and Hymns.

[1] *Ibid*, 66.

Holm's Description of the Province of New Sweden.

, 16.

[5] Clay, 42-56. Acrelius, 181-202.

2 Ecclesiastical Acts.
2 Church Regulations.
100 Catechisms of Archbishop Suebilius.
300 Compends of Archbishop Suebilius.
400 Primers.
500 Catechisms in the Indian language.

These books, together with the few that remained of those brought over on the first voyage, comprised the entire literary stock of the Swedish settlements. They were distributed "in such wise that those who have a large household and many who can read should have the more books, and those who had less, fewer books; and those who could not use a large book, a manual, Golden Clenodium, etc., should have a catechism or an A B C book, and teach themselves first, and those now favored with books should remember to use them faithfully." Those who received books were exhorted to "remember God's house with some money as a thank offering, each one in proportion to books received."[1]

The second lot of books was sent in 1699 by King Charles XII, of Sweden. Biork had written the King that a large part of those first sent were not received. Therefore the King immediately forwarded a great number of unbound books.[2]

Another donation was received from Charles XII in 1705, and was equally divided between the church at Wicaco and that at Christina. This donation consisted of—

4 New church Bibles, royal folio.
40 Bibles, octavo, printed in Amsterdam.
4 Psalm books, quarto.
300 Swedish psalm books, of which 100 are octavo and the rest duodecimo, but 40 of them unbound.
44 Autobiography, 16mo.
6 Specula religiona blausula.
2 Children's books.
2 Sermons on His Royal Majesty's victory at Clisconl
3 Christ's bloody offering for the sins of the world.[3]

In 1712 there were sent over with Hesselius and Lidenius "10 copies in folios regalii of the Bible" and 360 Swedish hymn books. Charles XII had donated them four years before, but their coming was delayed by his war with Peter the Great.[4] Rev. Gabriel Naesman brought over in 1743, at a cost of 1012 Swedish dollars,[5] a fresh supply, consisting of the following books:

3 Copies of Gezelius's "Exposition of the Greek Testament."
9 Copies of the Bible.
3 Copies of Scriver's "Treasury of the Soul."
3 Copies of the "Concordia Pia" in Swedish.
24 Psalm books.[6]

[1] Burr's Translation of the Records of Holy Trinity (Old Swedes) Church, 14. Clay 68, 69.
[2] Burr, 70.
[3] Burr, 118; Clay, 90.
[4] Burr, 147, 173, 197, 228; Clay, 95, 96; Acrelius, 366–368.
[5] This dollar is equal to about 27 cents (Acrelius, 368).
[6] Clay, 121; Acrelius, 366–368, gives list of books received at the Swedish settlements.

n brought over, at a cost of 1,000 Swedish dollars, 200 ius's Catechism and 200 small copies, 60 copies of psalm n quarto, 1 copy of Arndt's "True Christianity," 1 copy 'Concord," 3 volumes; 1 copy of Gezelius's "Exposi- Testament."

Unander in 1749 brought over 2 copies of the "Con- Swedish and 15 copies of Dr. Ernst Sal. Cyprian's arning against the Error that all Religions are equally d into Swedish by Provost Eric Beckman. In 1750, came over 30 copies of John Walch's "Thoughts upon rrnhutters;" and, with Mr. Lidenius, 50 psalm books ion.

tion of books to the Swedish settlements, so far as the vas made in 1770 by the Society for the Propagation

SWEDISH SCHOOLMASTERS.

w a goodly supply of books, and the want of teacners ction in them speedily manifested itself.

ned that the ministers were too old and infirm to "pay to the education of youth." The congregations were he youth requiring instruction numerous.[2] Aid was t from Sweden. Bishop Swedberg, counsellor of the Charles XI, and father of the famous Emanuel Sweden- own son, Jesper Swedberg, who taught school, about han a year at Racoon Church, east of the Delaware.[3] 08 John Club taught the Swedish school at Wicaco.[4] of Sweden, donated two pieces of jubilee medals to two nasters in New Sweden in 1841,[5] which is an evidence ce of schools in the Swedish settlements was by this in the mother country.

SWEN COLSBERG.

olmaster of whom we have record at Christina was On the 22d of October, 1699, he was engaged by s to act as bell-ringer, and, as the salary proved inade- pport, they "took him especially for a schoolmaster," gather for him 18 or 20 children in the house of Preparations were made the next spring to build a "sufficient timber was cut on the glebe wood lot,

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ction, xxi, 324. Swedberg or Svedberg.

Wickersham, 79.

rr, 282.

122, 134; Acrelius, 270; Burr's translation is the chief source of ing Swen Colsberg.

forty-three pieces, 20 feet long; but on account of the sickness and other hindrances nothing further was done about it, and the timber was never brought forward. Early in May the schoolkeeping in Bokton[1] was discontinued, partly on account of the above-mentioned sickness and some other causes, particularly that some inconsiderate persons neglected to keep their children steadily at school, though they were diligently and thoroughly taught, and so things did not proceed as they ought, and the teacher got little for his pains." Swen Colsberg, disheartened, was on the point of abandoning his school, when Joran Anderson removed from his own dwelling and left it to him "entirely free for a half year to keep school in, and with it a piece of land to plant, and Jasper Walraven, of his goodness to help forward what he saw was for the glory of God, viz, the education of the children, gave also not only a piece of ground for cultivation, but also promised him free board for two months, which he stood to. * * * The 10th of June, in the name of the Lord, Swen Colsberg began his schoolkeeping for a half year at the above-named place." This faithful schoolmaster, bell-ringer, and reader died January 22, 1710; "a no-small loss," writes Biork, "to me and the congregation, on account of his useful work amongst us." The records tell us nothing more about the educational career of this "well-known and proper person;" but the good name he left to posterity is adequate evidence of his good work.

ARVID HERNBOHM.

On the 9th of May, 1716, the Christina congregation decided to invite Arvid Hernbohm, the "quiet and capable" schoolmaster at Wicaco, to take charge of their school, promising him as "honorable and satisfactory support" as was "afforded in the upper congregation." But the invitation was declined because "he had already made a good beginning in instructing certain of the upper congregation's children, so that he could not soon be spared without detriment to them."[2] Arvid Hernbohm had studied at the gymnasium at Skara, and first went out with Mr. Anders Silvius, chaplain to the embassy with Consul De Beche at Lisbon. He came to this country "at his own prompting, in the year 1713, but provided with good testimonials as to his learning and ability."

He was employed as schoolmaster at Wicaco for some years. Then he was invested with license to preach by Bishop Swedberg and acted as lay reader in the church.[3]

JOHAN GIODING AND HIS SCHOOL.

Failing to secure the services of Arvid Hernbohm, the Christina congregation engaged Johan Gioding, who "had formerly on this side as

[1] Bokton was situated across the Brandywine, opposite Christina, and supported the same school (Burr, 58).

[2] Burr, 156, 227, 228.

[3] Acrelius, 219; Clay, 101; Wickersham, 79.

side of the river done the young good service." Johan
d to furnish both house and board for the schoolmas-
or, Måns Gustafsson, Gustaf Gustafsson, Johan Stal-
inan's wife, Margaretta, agreed to pay him as "wages
ach child, leaving all the rest of the congregation at
eir children whenever they please and agree on the
ey can."

s opened in Johan Gustafsson's house June 17, 1717.
resent with as many of the parents as could attend,
usly calling upon God with singing and prayer and a
children and their parents, examined the children as
cy and then recommended them to Mr. Gioding, the
hildren are here inserted:

stafsson, 9 years old, can read his catechism tolerably well and
ery well various questions of Christian instruction.
afsson, 7 years old, recites the Ten Commandments tolerably well.
ars old, can read Swedish and say the Ten Commandments.
tafsson, 7 years old, can read Swedish tolerably well.
ughter, Annika, 6 years old, can spell Swedish tolerably well.
daughter, Catherina, 12 years old, can read in a book, but must
to spell right.
hansson's son, 5 years old, knows the letters.
late Peter Stalcop's daughter, 11 years old, reads Swedish indif-
but must learn to spell anew.
1 years old, can spell Swedish a little.
Gustaf's daughter, 8 years old, can spell a little.
n, Lars, 7 years old, knows the letters.

718, the "pastor met with Mr. Gioding and all the
ouse of Johan Stalcop, in presence of most of the parents
o have a formal closing of the past school-keeping,
e 17, 1717, and had been sometime since ended, that it
by a proper examination how much improvement the
e, and, according to the wish of the parents, dismiss
his school work. The pastor opened the exercises
yer and appropriate remarks, after which Mr. Giod-
worthy manner, according to the method of His High
op Swedberg, in the beginning of his catechism, asked
ng the most important Christian doctrines requiring
Scripture, to which questions of Mr. Gioding, to the
tification of all, they answered promptly and boldly,
nfirmed their answers by a text of Holy Scripture
pany present could not refrain from glorifying God
and gladness for their children's quick memory and
the schoolmaster's diligence and circumspection, who
conversation and without any book, had impressed
es of the children, and that there had been no fault
reading the pastor proved by having them read por-
ns selected by him, and found to his great satisfac-
uld read Swedish well.

"Of all the children who were enrolled on the 17th of June, 1717, there were none absent except Mary Geens, Thomas Davis, and Anders Gustaf's daughter, Catherina, who had not been so fortunate as the other children, not being able to attend school constantly, though the last-mentioned, Catherina, is very well advanced, considering the little time she was able to be present.

"When all was gone through with the pastor concluded the examination with a children's hymn and a blessing on the children, whereupon all separated toward evening with mutual pleasure and congratulations."[1]

This naïve description of a Swedish school in Delaware, as interesting as it is valuable, shows both the interest of the Swedes in education and the character of the instruction given.

Johan Gioding's influence was, however, not confined to teaching. He seems to have been a leader among his people; for, when the books arrived from Sweden, he, says Acrelius, "admonished the people not only to gratitude and praise to God, but also that each one should make his church some acknowledgment for each book. He also encouraged his people to contribute peltry, fox skins, raccoon skins, sables, etc., which were sent home, some to Queen Ulrica and some to the Bishop of Skara. Sometimes he discussed their doctrines with the Quakers, and refuted their ideas in regard to dancing," etc.[2] Gioding died on the last day of 1719 or the first day of 1720.

HERR NILS FORSBERG AND OTHER SCHOOLMASTERS.

As early as 1722 the burden of supporting separate schools was so keenly felt that some of the Swedes concluded that they "would themselves instruct their children after they had learned to read English." But from that time until the coming of Acrelius, in 1749, it is said, no Swedish schools were kept and the children went to English schoolmasters, who taught them simply to read.[3] Acrelius urged upon his congregation the importance of preserving in its purity the Swedish language, which "had very much fallen out of use," and advised them to employ as schoolmaster Herr Nils Forsberg, a student of the University of Lund, who had lately arrived from Götheberg and offered his services. "Some of the congregation seemed to be willing, and as ordinary school keeping did not seem practicable on account of the scattered situation of the families about the country, he was received into their houses, taking up his abode first with one and then with another, and thus instructing their children.[4] During the winter he taught in a private house, and in the summer of 1750 near the church. But being unwell throughout the succeeding autumn and winter, and receiving poor support from his school, he gave it up. In 1758 he "began to keep school in Swedish in the house by the church belonging to Mr. Timothy Stedham, but children were few and only from the

[1] Burr, 231, 235–238, 245, 246, 261.
[2] Acrel s, 270.
[3] Burr, 422.
[4] Ibid., 42A.

e, therefore it seemed in the beginning that this school ot last long."[1] Here endeth the record of Swedish ina.

the Swedish settlements at Wicaco (near Philadelphia) Swedesboro) have not been translated or published re not accessible to the writer, but there is no doubt hich called forth schools at Christina also operated acoon. A few names of schoolmasters, besides Swed- into the records at Christina and the narrative of Acre- relative of Mr. Jonas Aurén, was lay reader and school- about 1796.[3] John Club taught the Swedish school 08 and was succeeded by Arvid Hernbohm. Gabriel at Wicaco from 1743 to 1750, made an agreement in with a congregation in New Jersey to preach there ay, and in the city taught a school in German, French, private record states that when Mr. Peter Kalm, pro- s in the University of Åbo, came to this country in 1748 f "discovering and collecting seeds and plants which ntage be transferred to Sweden," he brought with him amed Reinike, who was to take charge of the Swedish Jersey.[5] Other Swedish schoolmasters concerning carcely more than their names were Hans Stålt, who rsey side, Lenmayer, and Olof Malander.[7]

THE DECADENCE OF EDUCATION.

struggle for separate and distinct Swedish schools efore the Revolution and their subsequent history was of the Lutheran and Episcopal churches. The reason to seek. After the coming of the English in 1682, many an gradually to drop their native speech. Education in guage declined and it became customary for Swedish arn to read English and then the tongue of their fathers.[8] t all children in his day could read English, write, and ttention was doubtless given to reading than to writ- in the early period, for many made their mark instead ames to documents. House instruction by the pastor ering light of education among the Swedes.[8]

CONCLUSION.

rning education in the Swedish settlements differ t, with his usual sincerity, declares—and he is sup-

ins, 303.

ritten Wicaoa; Racoon, Raccoon, or Ratcong.

[5] Oldmixon, 153; Wickersham, 79. [6] Acrelius, 257.

the possession of Mr. John W. Irwan, of Philadelphia, who fur- th the fact.

[8] Acrelius, 303, 351.

OLD SWEDE CHURCH.

[redacted]

ported by the testimony of Biork and Rudman—that "their children, under every disadvantage of want of teachers and of Swedish books, were well instructed."[1] On the other hand, Ferris, writing in 1846, remarks: "Education was neglected; the active energies of the mind had either run wild or been depressed, and for more than forty years there had been very little advancement. * * * They had suffered grievously for want of that kind of government which calls into action the intellectual and physical powers of man."[2] Penn, who was a contemporary, calls the Swedes "a plain, strong, industrious people," and adds: "I see few young men more sober or industrious."[2] Acrelius, writing in 1759, displays a low opinion of the intellectual acquirements of the first Swedish settlers. He says: "Forty years back, our people scarcely knew what a school was. The first Swedish and Holland settlers were a poor, weak, and ignorant people, who brought up their children in the same ignorance, which is the reason why the natives of the country can neither write nor cipher, and that very few of them are qualified for any office under the government. None, whether boys or girls, are now growing up who can not read English, write, and cipher."[3] As a balance to the opinion of Acrelius should be repeated the words of Biork, in 1697, "They can all read tolerably well,"[4] and of Rudman, in the same year, "Almost everyone can read."[5]

These statements are less contradictory than at first sight they appear. None of them affirm that at any period were there the best facilities for education in the Swedish settlements. They disagree chiefly because scarcely any two of them refer exactly to the same period. Bancroft and Ferris philosophize concerning the whole period, but while the former is supported by contemporary evidence the latter stands almost alone. Penn refers to 1683, Biork and Rudman refer to 1697, while Acrelius deals particularly with the period 1749–1759, and only in a general way with education in the earlier period.

It will scarcely be doubted, then, that at least the thesis laid down at the outset is true, viz, the educational system of Sweden was transplanted to the Swedish settlements. As in Sweden, education was conducted by the church, a State institution, so in the colonies on the Delaware the educational status was determined primarily by the condition of the church and the character of its ministers. When the church flourished under zealous ministers the cause of education prospered. Where religious interest declined, education languished. The church was usually the schoolhouse and the minister frequently the schoolmaster, although a few earnest non-ministerial schoolmasters came over from time to time and private houses sometimes served as schoolhouses. Finally, distinctive Swedish schools were abandoned when the Swedes elected English-speaking clergymen to preach to them and abandoned their own tongue.

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[1] Bancroft, vol. I, 510.
[2] Wickersham, 12.
[3] Acrelius, 351. Wickersham, 12.
[4] Clay, 68, 72.
[5] *Ibid*, 71

CHAPTER II.

UCATION AMONG THE DUTCH.

EARLY SETTLEMENTS.

ds divide with England the glory of having planted the United States."[1] Close upon the heels of Henry Christiaensen and "the worthy Adriaen Block," in e waters of New York and brought back with them unts of the New Netherlands that Dutch trading established on its soil.[2] In 1626, Manhattan Island, e natives for the paltry sum of $24, furnished a site am, the embryonic metropolis of the New World. from the mother country, traders explored the adja- nder the charter of the United New Netherland Com- sprang up in Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, l New York. The first Dutch colony in Delaware, n thirty souls, was planted in 1631 on Lewes Creek, en, but was soon exterminated by the Indians in ath of their chief at the hands of Gillis Hosset, the the settlement. The patent to Lord Baltimore in ch an English rival before they could wrest the soil the natives.[3] Thus it happened that the Dutch made ement in Delaware until 1657, when New Amstel, now ounded by colonists from the city of Amsterdam.

N HOLLAND IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

weden, early evinced a keen interest in education. at the Pilgrim Fathers obtained the germs of that n which has made New England foremost in the education. There, also, William Penn, who, if we uglas Campbell, "was half a Dutchman," probably d educational principles which he tried to apply in

[1] Bancroft, 1, 475.
[2] *Ibid.*, 1, 489.
[3] *Ibid.*, 1, 499, 500.

Pennsylvania.[1] "Holland was, without doubt," says Wickersham, "the first country in Europe to establish a system of public schools similar to the schools now known by that name."[2] The interest of the House of Orange in public education appears in the following passage from a letter written in the sixteenth century by John of Nassau to his brother, the Prince of Orange: "You must urge upon the States General that they should establish free schools, where children of quality, as well as of poor families, for a very small sum could be well and christianly educated and brought up."[3] "Schools were everywhere, 1585, provided," says Broadhead, "at the public expense with good schoolmasters to instruct the children of all classes in the usual branches of education; and the consistories of the church took zealous care to have their youth thoroughly taught the Catechism and the Articles of Religion."[3] As in Sweden so in Holland the church early gained control over education, for a general ecclesiastical body resolved in 1574 that "the servants of the church shall determine when schools shall be established, the schoolmaster shall receive a fixed salary and shall sign a pledge to submit to the discipline of the church, and to teach the children the Catechism and all other knowledge which is useful to them."[3]

Therefore we may expect to see in New Netherlands the cause of education combined with that of religion and may gauge the status of the one largely by the condition of the other.

EDUCATIONAL INSTRUCTIONS AND SCHOOLS AT MANHATTAN.

The planting of the Dutch colonies in America was for the most part the work of the West India Company and its leader, Willem Usselinx.[4] That due consideration was given to the educational problem the following extracts from state papers indicate. The charter of freedoms, privileges, and exemptions granted by the States-General of Holland to the lords and patroons of New Netherlands, 1630 to 1635, provides in section 28 that "the Patroons shall also particularly exert themselves to find speedy means to maintain a Clergyman and Schoolmaster, in order that Divine Service and zeal for religion may be planted in that country, and shall send, at first, a Comforter of the sick thither."[5] The

[1] The educational principles, as well as the legal and political features of Penn's celebrated code for Pennsylvania, bear evidences of a Dutch influence which was exerted over Penn not only by his mother, a clever Dutchwoman, but also by his extensive travels in Holland, his excellent knowledge of the Dutch tongue, and his sojourn in the historic city of Emden, to which Mr. Campbell traces the first use of the written secret ballot used for the election of civil magistrates. *See* Campbell's The Puritan in Holland, England, and America, especially I, xxx; II, 207, 418, 491, 434.

[2] Wickersham, 3, 4.

[3] *Ibid.*, 4.

[4] Jameson's Willem Usselinx in Papers of American Historical Association, II, 161 ff.; Wickersham, 8.

[5] New York Colonial Documents, I, 99.

tions for emigrants to New Netherlands, drawn up in nber of Amsterdam, contain the following: "Each nhabitant shall bear such tax and public charge as considered proper for the maintenance of comforters olmasters, and such like necessary officers."[1] The an established schools at public expense as early as elansen was the first distinctive schoolmaster," says d the school he taught" has continued in operation to "the oldest school in the United States."[2]

to marriage contracts in the New Netherlands were e "to bring up their children decently, according to eep them at school, and to let them learn reading, d trade."[2] In response to a request from the "burschepens" of New Amsterdam, Dr. Alexander Carolus over by the West India Company in 1659 to act as salary of 500 guilders.[3] Dominie Aegidius Luyck 1662 and brought the school so much prosperity that ted from Fort Orange, Albany, South River (as the n called), and Virginia. When the English, in 1664, from the Dutch, "the claims of the poor to an equal e youth to an education were not neglected. * * * almost every town and village at the close of this

LS AND SCHOOLMASTERS IN DELAWARE.

on made by the Dutch for education in Delaware litions offered by the city of Amsterdam in 1656 to elaware River. The city of Amsterdam agreed to oper person for schoolmaster, who shall also read the nd set the Psalms.

nsterdam shall provisionally and until further oppor- salary of said schoolmaster."[5]

(now New Castle) the city of Amsterdam "shall cause t the market, or in a more convenient place, a public for divine service; *item*, also a house for a school, se be occupied by a person who will hereafter be er, and schoolmaster; the city shall besides have a e minister."[6] No record has been found showing was really erected at New Castle at this time, nor, xisted in the colony on the Delaware before the year utch schoolmaster in Delaware of whom we have

olonial Documents, 112, 123.
, 9.
Federal and State Aid to Education, 131.
, 10.
a Archives, second series, v, 267; Hazard, 221.
olonial Documents, i, 620.

record was Evert Pietersen, who came out to New Amstel in 1656 with the first body of emigrants from Amsterdam. He had "passed a good examination before the classis" and accompanied the emigrants as schoolmaster and *Zicken-Trooster*, "to read God's word and lead in singing" until the arrival of a clergyman.[1] That he at once organized a school is proved by the following extract from the first letter, dated August 19, 1657, which he sent to Holland. He says:

> We arrived here at the South River on the 25th April, and found twenty families there, mostly Swedes, not more than five or six families belonging to our nation. * * * I already begin to keep school and have twenty-five children, etc.[2]

In the expense account of the colony for the period from 1659 to 1662 Evert Pietersen is set down as having received somewhat more than 1,000 florins.[3] He seems to have left New Castle before 1662, and was next found at New York engaged in teaching, when the city, in 1664, fell into English hands. Arent Eversen Molenaer probably succeeded Pietersen at New Castle, for the expense account already mentioned records the payment to him in 1660 of 150 florins for similar services. The last Dutch schoolmaster at New Castle whom the records name was Abelius Zetscoven. He appears to have been minister also, but his reputation as schoolmaster outstripped his fame as minister, for the people of Tinnekonk in 1663 tried in vain to secure him to instruct their young.[4]

Concerning Dutch schools in other sections of Delaware, there is little to relate. A direct descendant[5] of Wiltbank, who was appointed "Schout" at Lewes in 1672,[6] asserts that he settled at Lewes about 1650, when it was merely an Indian village, and soon afterwards donated a lot for a schoolhouse, but whether one was actually constructed is not known.

Hazard, referring to the year 1654, says: "Andreas Hudde, late commandant of Fort Nassau, applies to director-general and council to be appointed schoolmaster."

This brief sketch closes the history of Dutch education in Delaware, but we should err were we to infer from its meagerness that there was no education during this period. As in Holland the church served as schoolhouse and the clergyman as schoolmaster and *Zieken-Trooster*, so in the Dutch settlements education filtered down to the young through the same uncertain medium.

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[1] Brodhead's History of New York, I, 631.

[2] Pennsylvania Archives, second series, v, 289.

[3] *Ibid.*, 419. Wickersham (12) asserts that Evert Pietersen "received some 1,400 florins," but does not cite his authority. The writer therefore accepts the statement in the Pennsylvania Archives.

[4] Hazard, 353. Acrelius (p. 101) says *Abelius Selskoorn*, whom Hazard regards as *Abelius Zetscoren*, "never presided over any congregation on South River as an ordained minister."

[5] Mrs. Harris, of Milford, Del., who communicated with the writer through Miss Mary T. Hall. The story is a family tradition, worthy of note, at least, even if we are not sure of its accuracy.

[6] Pennsylvania Archives, second series, v, 618.

A TYPICAL DUTCH SCHOOL.

greement between Johannes von Eckkelen, accepted
chorister, and the town of Flatbush, Long Island,
ght upon the manner of conducting Dutch and other
ntry two hundred years ago:[1]

shall begin at 8 o'clock, and go out at 11; shall begin again at
. The bell shall be rung before the school commences.
l begins, one of the children shall read the morning prayer as
ism, and close with the prayer before dinner; and in the after-
evening school shall begin with the Lord's Prayer and close

tract the children in the common prayers, and in the questions
techism on Wednesdays and Saturdays, to enable them to say
y in the church.
required to keep his school nine months in succession, from
e year with another; and shall always be present himself.
chorister of the church, keep the church clean, ring the bell
people assemble, and read a chapter of the Bible in the church
nd third ringing of the bell; after the third ringing he shall
dments and the twelve articles of our faith, and then set the
noon, after the third ringing of the bell, he shall read a short
psalms of David, as the congregation are assembling; after-
ing a psalm or hymn.
inister shall preach at Brooklyn or Utrecht, he shall be bound
e congregation, from the book used for the purpose. He shall
te the questions and answers out of the catechism on Sunday,
rein.
vide a basin of water for the administration of holy baptism,
ster with the name of the child to be baptized, for which he
sivers in wampum for every baptism, from the parents or
rnish bread and wine for the communion at the charge of the
serve as messenger for the consistory.
ve the funeral invitations, dig the graves, and toll the bell;
all receive, for persons of fifteen years of age and upwards,
for persons under fifteen, eight guilders; and if he shall cross
, he shall have four guilders more.
.—1st. He shall receive for a speller or a reader three guilders
writer four guilders, for the day school. In the evening, four
r a reader, and five guilders for a writer, per quarter.
is salary shall be four hundred guilders in wheat (of wampum
Brooklyn Ferry, with the dwelling, pasturage, and meadow
hool.
son in consistory, under the inspection of the honorable con-
this 8th of October, 1682.

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[1] ory of Long Island (2 vols., New York, 1873), I, 285, 286

CHAPTER III.

EDUCATION AMONG THE ENGLISH.

THE COMING OF THE FRIENDS.

English settlers were the last to colonize Delaware, but, unlike their predecessors, they emigrated from a land in which education could scarcely be called either public or universal. The Elizabethan age produced a Shakespeare, but left to a subsequent age the task of producing a large public to read his works. The so-called "public schools" of England of the seventeenth century were actually private, endowed schools, admitting free a few indigent pupils and controlled only in a general way by the Government. But had education in the mother country been universal the English settlers in Delaware before Penn's coming were so few and so dispersed among the Swedes and Dutch that, however great their desire to educate the young, schools and teachers were beyond their reach.

William Penn, sailing up the Delaware in 1682, passed many villages and scattered houses, containing, according to Oldmixon, some three thousand souls;[1] Swedish, Dutch, and English. Of these the Swedes, numbering about a thousand[2] and mostly farmers, had important settlements at Christina, Marcus Hook, Chester, and Wicaco; and churches at Tinicum, Wicaco, and Christina. The Dutch, less numerous than the Swedes and for the most part traders, had a large settlement at New Castle, but were scattered along the Delaware from Cape Henlopen to the Brandywine. A single church at New Castle was their only place of worship.[3]

English colonies and isolated English families had attempted to settle along the Delaware from 1640 onwards, but were usually repelled by the Swedes and Dutch. There remained, however, in almost every settlement, a few Englishmen; some from New England, others from Maryland or Virginia. And besides, the Quakers had established flourishing colonies at Salem and Burlington, in West Jersey, while many of that sect had settled at Chester and other points west of the Delaware.[4]

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[1] Watson's Annals, 1, 9.

[2] Ferris: Original Settlements on the Delaware, 129.

[3] Wickersham, 1, 2.

he Friends, in 1682, contributed to our civilization nd more intelligent people than the earlier settlers, d social importance at once began to wane. The hip and high ethical ideals of the Friends bespoke e, for the highest moral culture is most intelligible Nearly all could read and write. Many of them were n himself had studied at Oxford and on the Con-

OF YORK'S PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATION.

already been made for education by the English led the region from 1664 to 1682, when the province of Penn; for, among the laws of the Duke of York, ng, dated 1676:

Overseers are strictly required frequently to Admonish the eting their Children and Servants, in matters of Religion and untry, And that the Parents and Masters do bring up their ices in some honest Lawfull Calling Labour or Employment. r Servants become rude, stuborne or unruly refusing to hearken 'arents or Masters, the Constables and Overseers (where no Jus- appen to dwell within ten miles of the said Town or Parish) Complaint of their Parents or Masters to call before them such nflict such Corporal punishment as the merrit of their fact in deserve, not excepting ten Stripes, provided that such Children xteen years of age.[1]

ENN'S PROVISIONS FOR EDUCATION.

f Government, written in England in 1682, contains isions for education in the New World:

Governor and Provincial Council shall erect and order all pub- urage and reward the authors of useful sciences and laudable l Province. * * * And, fourthly, a committee of manners, that all wicked and scandalous living may be prevented, and ccessively trained up in virtue and useful knowledge and arts.[2]

s agreed upon in England was one laying the basis cation:

all children within this Province of the age of twelve years, useful trade or skill, to the none may be idle, but the poor may rich, if they become poor, may not want.[3]

s to his wife and children, as he embarked for America, his heart was education, as well as the system he e education of his children he writes feelingly:

be liberal. Spare no cost for by such parsimony all is lost that useful knowledge, such as is consistent with truth and god- a vain conversation or idle mind, but ingenuity mixed with

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York's Book of Laws, 19, 20.

and Laws of the Province of Pennsylvania, 95, 96.

2.

industry is good for the body and mind too. I recommend the useful part of mathematics, as building houses or ships, measuring, surveying, dialling, navigation; but agriculture is especially in my eye; let my children be husbandmen and housewives; it is industrious, healthy, honest, and of good example.[1]

THE FIRST LEGISLATION IN THE COLONY.

The first general assembly, which convened at Chester, December 4, 1682, soon after the arrival of Penn, accepted the frame and body of laws which Penn had prepared and printed in England, including the educational provisos already quoted. But, in addition, the assembly now passed the "Great Law," consisting of seventy-one chapters, of which Chapter LX contains the following remarkable provision:

That the Laws of this Province, from time to time, shall be publisht and printed, that every person may have the knowledge thereof; And they shall be one of the Books taught in the Schools of this Province and territorys thereof.[2]

This clause leaves no room to doubt that the Friends contemplated the immediate establishment of public schools throughout the province and the three lower counties, as Delaware was then called.

The second assembly, which convened at Philadelphia on the 10th of March, 1683, passed the following additional laws relating to education:

(1) The governor and provincial council were ordered to "erect and order all public schools," and to the former, together with one-third of the latter, was entrusted the "care of the management" of the "good education of youth."

(2) Universal education was contemplated in the requirement that persons having charge of children should have them instructed in reading and writing before they were 12 years of age, or pay a fine of £5 for every sound child.

(3) Children were to be taught "some useful trade or skill"—clearly an anticipation of modern industrial education.

(4) Force, if necessary, was to be used to execute the law.[3] The terms of this provision make it one of the strongest laws for compulsory education ever passed. Ten years later it was abrogated by William and Mary, but was subsequently (1693) reënacted by Governor Fletcher;[4] and there is no evidence of a second formal repeal.

Governor Markham's Frame of Government, granted in 1696, contains educational provisions similar to those already enumerated.[5]

ENOCH FLOWER'S SCHOOL.

The comprehensive and intelligent provisions made by the founders and early assemblies furnished a solid foundation for that educational

[1] Wickersham, 33.

[2] Charter and Laws of the Province of Pennsylvania, 123. This law was abrogated by William and Mary in 1693.

[3] *Ibid.*, 142; Wickersham, 39, 40.

[4] Charter and Laws of the Province of Pennsylvania, 238.

[5] *Ibid.*, 251.

which the colonists were authorized and destined to
st attempt to establish a school, December, 1683, is
"Minutes of the Provincial Council,"[1] in the follow-
s:

vll Council having taken into their Serious Consideration the great
f a Scool Master for ye Instruction & Sober Education of Youth
hiladelphia. Sent for Enock flower, an inhabitant of the said
enty Year past hath been Exercised in that care and Implaym^t
m having Communicated their Minds, he Embraced it upon these
o Learne to read English 4^s by the Quarter, to Learne to read and
rter, to learn to read, Write and Cast acco^t 8^s by ye Quarter; for
r, that is to say, dyet, Washing, Lodging, & Scooling, Tenn
le year.

is said to have come from Corsham, Wiltshire, Eng-
d his school, the first English school in the province,
, in a dwelling built of pine and cedar planks.[2]

GRAMMAR SCHOOL—GEORGE KEITH AND THOMAS MAKIN.

hich established this school also had in view a higher
s proposed on the 17th of the 11th month, 1683, "that
bout the Learning and Instruction of Youth, to Witt:
and Sciences."

Public School," now known as the "William Penn Char-
bably had its origin in a "public grammar school"
lished in 1689, incorporated in 1697, and confirmed by
n 1701, the powers of which were extended in 1708 and

the school is thus set forth in the preamble to the

perity and welfare of any people depend, in great measure, upon
of youth and their early introduction in the principles of true
, and qualifying them to serve their country and themselves by
reading, writing, and learning of languages, and useful arts and
their sex, age, and degree, which can not be effected in any
by erecting public schools for the purposes aforesaid, etc.[3]

rovided that all children and servants should be "In-
h at reasonable rates, and the poor to be maintained
nothing."[4] George Keith, then a Scotch Friend, but
to Friends, was the first teacher. "His salary for offi-
chool, was fifty pounds per annum, with a house for his
, a school-house provided, and the profits of the school

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on, 1, 287; Wickersham, 41.
Provincial Council, 1, 38; Wickersham, 41; Proud, History of
5.
ry of the Society of Friends in America, II, 34.
Provincial Council, 1, 499.

beside for one year."[1] His usher, or assistant, was Thomas Makin (Meakins or Meaking), who appears to have kept a "ffree school in the town of philadelphia," as early as 1693,[2] for in that year the council required him to "procure a certificate of his abilitie, Learning & diligence, from the Inhabitants of note in this towne," after which it gave him a "Licence" to teach.[3] This is perhaps the first instance of a teacher's public school certificate in the history of the country. Thomas Makin was a Latin scholar of some repute and wrote a Latin poem "descriptive of Pensylvania in 1729." In November, 1733, he fell into the Delaware River while attempting to draw a pail of water, and was drowned.[3]

CHRISTOPHER TAYLOR AND OTHER SCHOOLMASTERS.

Enoch Flower's school, organized in 1683, and the Friends public school, opened in 1689, were established as has been stated, under the auspices of the government of the province, and were therefore public schools; but others were at the same time instituted by private effort. Christopher Taylor, an excellent classical scholar and Quaker minister, founded a school on Tinicum Island before 1686, the year of his death, and referred to the island as "Tinicum, alias College Island." Christianus Lewis, a schoolmaster from Dudley, Worcestershire, England, came to Philadelphia in January, 1683, but nothing is known concerning his subsequent life. In 1692 Benjamin Clift was engaged to teach school for one year in Delaware County, Pa., and at the expiration of the term was reëlected for the same time. The Dutch and German Friends, in 1701, established a school at Germantown, and chose as schoolmaster Francis Daniel Pastorius, who had probably taught in Philadelphia five years before. Pastorius was famous for his learning, being master of seven or eight languages as well as a scientist and philosopher.[4]

THE SEPARATION OF DELAWARE FROM PENNSYLVANIA AND ITS EFFECTS ON EDUCATION.

The year 1702 marks the separation of Delaware from Pennsylvania, and warns us henceforth to confine our attention to the former State alone. No records have been found throwing light upon the educa-

[1] Proud, I, 343, 363. Janney's History of the Friends, II, 389.

[2] Minutes of Provincial Council, I, 344.

[3] Proud, 344, 345; Watson, I, 287; Wickersham, 41-43; Janney, III, 71-73. These contain sketches of early Philadelphia schools. The Pennsylvania Gazette of November 29, 1733, announces Makin's death thus: "On Monday evening last Mr. Thomas Meakins fell off a wharf into the Delaware, and before he could be taken out again was drowned. He was an ancient man, and formerly lived very well in this city teaching a considerable school, but of late years was reduced to extreme poverty."

Wickersham, 81, 82, and Bowden, II, 34, 35, are the authority for the facts concerning Taylor, Lewis, Clift, Pastorius, and their schools.

the Friends in Delaware during the period immediately
ion. Their first school was established at Wilmington
of the first Friends who settled there, and has main-
ous existence to the present time. The fact is that
bly few Quakers within the limits of the State before
ey were chiefly confined to the northern part.
ning of the eighteenth century Swedes, Dutch, and
ide by side in peace, and unconsciously began that
traceable in many families of the State, which has
pical Delawarean of to-day. Many national character-
ndered at the inexorable behest of fate. Intermar-
door to interchange of customs; and schools in com-
e common schools of the succeeding century. Thus
idered the educational development of those elements
State was constructed. Henceforth we are to treat
osite whole, regardless of racial differences, and to
on of education in Delaware as a complete body politic.

PRESS IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

ays an educator for good or ill, exerted considerable
early history. Delaware was the last, except Georgia,
colonies into which printing was introduced. Before
ere printed in Philadelphia. James Adams, a native
the only printer who settled in Delaware before
d the art of printing in Londonderry, and when of age
lphia, where he was employed for seven years by
ll. In 1760 he established a press in Philadelphia,
the following year to Wilmington, Del. In 1762 he
The Wilmington Courant, but, for want of encourage-
ndoned at the end of six months. This was the first
per in the State before the Revolution. He printed
nt, and although his business was not extensive, he
rable property. "Several works on religious subjects
ess, and he published one or more almanacs annually,
old books." Upon the approach of the British army
ed his printing materials and family to the vicinity of
and there printed an almanac, but nothing else. After
ated Philadelphia in 1778, he returned with his press
and in 1787 commenced the publication of another
The Wilmington Courant, which lived for two or three
in conjunction with his son, Samuel, he published the
astern Shore Advertiser.[2] He died near the close of
of 63, leaving four sons and two daughters. Two of

Friends' school, on West street, near Fourth street, Wilming-

the sons, all of whom were printers, succeeded their father, but did not prosper.

The next paper published in the State was The Delaware Gazette, which first appeared in 1784, under the ownership of Jacob Craig, who was soon followed by Moses Bradford. This ends the history of the press in Delaware in the eighteenth century so far as the writer has been able to investigate it.[1]

[1]The following sources on the press in early Delaware have been used: Isaiah Thomas: The History of Printing in America, I, 318, 319; II, 150. American Almanac, 1835, p. 215. See appendix for Conrad's The Press of Delaware.

CHAPTER IV.

R THE PROPAGATION OF THE GOSPEL IN FOREIGN PARTS.

ATION AND CHARACTER OF THE SOCIETY.

for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts
t of rendering good service in making education in
al, for the educational efforts of the Swedes, the
English before that time had been confined to the
he State. Thomas Bray (1656–1730), the founder of
of the most important, if not most famous, person-
of the Church of England. He received the degree
rd in 1693 and D. D. three years later. The Bishop
ted him commissary for the province of Maryland in
ed him, before sailing, to seek out good and suitable
ssionaries in the colonies. Finding that he could
vice only men too poor to buy themselves books, "he
le the help of the bishops towards purchasing paro-
provision of his going to Maryland." Out of this
as evolved the Society for Propagating Christian
Bray sailed for Maryland on December 16, 1699, but
a year. The work of the Society for Propagating
lge had so largely increased when he returned that
y to make one of its departments a separate society.
Bray obtained from the King, on June 16, 1701, an
n for the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel
"Dr. Bray may then be considered as the real
oldest societies of the Established Church."[1]
he Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts was
the colonists with clergymen, to check dissension and
onies, and to make the Established Church as strong

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ted to Stephen B. Weeks, PH. D., for the use of his manuscript
Development in the Province of North Carolina" (since pub-
Hopkins University studies, Vol. X, Nos. V-VI), and for many
on this chapter. See also Hawks' History of North Carolina,

abroad as it was at home.[1] For the first three years it was employed, according to the first report, in "supplying with able and good ministers the natives as well as English; appointing catechists and schoolmasters for the slaves, with other ignorant persons, and sending over select libraries for the improvement of the clergy, as well as practical treatises for the edification of the laity." Its success at the end of twelve years was summarized by Dean Stanhope in the words, there was "a new face of Religion introduced all over our Plantations."[2] The demand for libraries, and for schoolmasters to instruct the servants and slaves, as well as the children of the American colonists, accompanied or followed close upon the demand for clergymen. In Pennsylvania and Delaware alone the society distributed, before 1728, two hundred volumes of bound books and about £300 worth of tracts.[1] It was, however, scarcely successful in instructing slaves, for the people were backward in sending them to the schoolmasters or clergymen, and some of the missionaries found the slaves dull.[3]

GEORGE KEITH AND OTHER MISSIONARIES.

Bishop Compton sent the first Protestant Episcopal clergyman, Mr. Evans, to Pennsylvania in 1700. In two years, owing chiefly to dissensions among the Friends, his congregation increased to 500 and petitioned King William for a stipend for their minister. "His Majesty was pleased to allow 50*l.* sterling to their minister and 30*l.* to a schoolmaster at Philadelphia."[4] George Keith traveled through the colonies in 1702–1704 as missionary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and converted many Quakers to the Protestant Episcopal faith. He had formerly been a stanch Friend, and in 1689 opened the first school for that faith in Philadelphia. Soon afterwards he became unorthodox and spread dissension so successfully that by 1699 about one-third of the population of Pennsylvania were Keithites. Later he joined the Church of England and in 1700 was ordained a priest by that body. Two years later he came to America as missionary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts with the avowed purpose of gathering "Quakers from Quakerism to the mother church." Shortly before his death in 1714 he expressed the belief that if he had died "when he went among the Quakers and in that profession, it had been well with him."[5] Upon his return to England in 1704

[1] Historical account of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, 179, by Humphreys, ch. I.

[2] Dean Stanhope's sermon before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, Feb. 19, 17|¾.

[3] Perry's Historical Collections relating to the American Colonial Church, 18; also abstract of proceedings of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, 1730–1731.

[4] Historical Account of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, 146.

[5] Janney, III, 71–91. Minutes of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge for the Years 1698–1704, edited by Rev. Edmund McClure, 32, note.

the Society, whose missionary he had been, the want
colonies, "and assured them that several congrega-
ns had engaged him to present their humble Requests
end Ministers to them." Among these were the con-
r Hundred and New Castle, "where they were build-
he came away."[1]

nediately responded and sent them missionaries, two
orge Ross and Rev. Thomas Crawford, went to Dela-
e year they reported that, among other things, they
selves in "appointing catechists and schoolmasters
th other ignorant persons, and sending over select
nprovement of the clergy, as well as practical treatises
of the laity."[2]

ROSS AND EDUCATION AT NEW CASTLE.

ss was appointed missionary to New Castle, then a
00 inhabitants, in 1705, and remained there for many
successful and popular that many people came reg-
12 miles away to hear his sermons; and his people
him £48 per annum. In addition to New Castle,
l twice a month, his parish sometimes included Apo-
te Clay, at each of which he preached once a month.
rompted him to pay repeated visits also to lower Dela-
company with William Keith, governor of the prov-
ania and Delaware at this time had a common gover-
wes and other points in Sussex County, and preached
He visited Kent County also, and on a second visit to
ened a new church.[3] The importance of education
is mind. He petitioned the authorities in England in
ll salary of six pounds per annum may be allowed to
oolmaster in this place to encourage his instructing
rch Catechism."[4] This, however, was not the first
nd, for, as early as 1711, the vestry of the church at
oned the Society to send them a schoolmaster.[5] Mr.
of the history of his church at New Castle, described
lucation in 1727 as follows:

vate schools within my reputed district which are put very
f those who are brought into the country & sold for servants.
are hired by the year, by a knot of Families who, in their turns
ly, & the poor man lives in their Houses like one that begged
ke a person in credit & authority. When a Ship arrives in the
expression with those who stand in need of an Instructor for

Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, 79,

of the S. P. G.
. G., 162-166, 169-173.
ections relating to the American Colonial Church, v, 55.

their children, *Let us go & buy a School Master.* The truth is, the office & character of such a person is generally very mean & contemptible here, & it can not be other ways 'til the public takes the Education of Children into their mature consideration.[1]

THOMAS CRAWFORD AND THE MISSION AT DOVER.

Rev. Thomas Crawford was sent as missionary to Dover by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, in 1704.

He entered upon his Ministry with good success, and gained from Persons of Repute, the Character of an ingenious and acceptable Man. The People at his first coming among them were very ignorant; insomuch that he informs, not one Man in the County understood how the common-Prayer-Book was to be read; and he was forced to instruct them privately at home, in the Method of reading the Liturgy: for the more general Instruction of the People, he used to preach one Sunday at the upper End of the County, another at Dover Church, and a third at the lower End of the County. He used to Catechise the children all the Summer long, before sermon, but not in the Winter.

He, like Ross, was zealous in spreading the faith. He preached throughout the whole of Kent County, "which," he said, "is above 50 miles long at several places," and occasionally at Apoquiminy, in New Castle County. He preached also in Capt. Hill's house, at Lewis Town (Lewes), then inhabited mostly by pilots and other seamen; and it was through his influence that the society sent to the Lewes people Bibles and prayer-books. Crawford then returned to England, and for many years Kent and Sussex had no ministers, but depended upon the voluntary services of Ross and others. The Society paid Crawford £50 per annum for his services and allowed him £15 for books to be distributed among the people.[2] In 1709 or 1710, Mr. Jacob Henderson was sent to Dover Hundred but no record has been found of his work there.[3]

THE MISSION AT APOQUIMINY.

The inhabitants of Apoquiminy, in the southern part of New Castle County, built a church in 1705, long before they had any settled minister. They were sometimes visited by Rev. Mr. Sewell, from Maryland, and by Rev. Thomas Crawford, of Dover. They applied to the Society for a minister, and Rev. Mr. Jenkins was sent them. He was so successful that more than two hundred persons attended his services. For a time he officiated at New Castle, but returned to Apoquiminy in 1708, and five months later died. The Society for a long time sent no one to succeed him, because the support of other missions annually exhausted their funds. The Apoquiminy people depended therefore upon the visits of of Biork (the Swede), Club, Ross, and others. Dover, also, was bereft of a clergyman, and none had yet been sent to Lewes, so that the want of missionaries was general. The clergy of Pennsylvania and Delaware

[1] Perry's Hist. Collections relating to the American Colonial Church, v, 47 *et seq.*

[2] Historical Acct. of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, 166-169. Oldmixon, 155. Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, Report, 1709, 1710. First Report of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

[3] Hist. Acct. of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, 159-162, George Berkeley's sermon, preached in 1732, as Report of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, 50.

ty in 1715 that their churches were becoming less popu-
e of Apoquiminy, Bucks, Kent, and Sussex counties
falling from the faith. They said they had endeavored
ngregations together" by pastoral work and by "in-
uth," but the service was rendered extremely difficult
rsion of the churches. The Society sent Mr. Merry as
oquiminy, but, instead of settling there, he returned to
ampbell succeeded him, but soon went to Brookhaven.
ext sent, and appears to have remained, for he writes
nds the People backward in sending grown *Negroes* to
rder for Baptism; but they frequently bring *Negroe*
n, and after their being instructed, their Masters be-
es."[1]

ERVICES OF THE SOCIETY IN DELAWARE.

m Keith, shortly after his visit to Lewes in 1717, wrote
described the great want of missionaries in Delaware.
at once sent to Lewes. He proved his efficiency by
church at Lewes in 1720–1721, and three at adjacent
it included Lewes, a place 8 miles away, and another
The Society rendered its last service (if we may trust
lucation in Delaware in colonial times by sending, in
el Acrelius, the Swedish clergyman and historian,
gious books" to be distributed to those who needed
ularly to the Swedes at Egg Harbor."[2]
sketch of the Society and its work in Delaware, it in-
e records have revealed, and suffices to establish the
t important agent in the State at large in the last cen-
gation of education as well as the gospel. Moreover,
hat New Castle and Dover, whither missionaries were
the Iona and the Lindisfarne of this little Teutonic
r they sent forth missionaries to its remotest bounds.

ESBYTERIANS AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

t Episcopal Church rendered education in Delaware
esbyterian Church took the initiative in raising its
ware College is the fruit of a seed planted in 1738
of Lewes; which sprouted in the New London (Penn-
y of Francis Alison, in 1744; ripened to maturity in
, and bore fruit in Delaware College.[3] Previous to
Delaware seems to have been founded by the Pres-
importance of their work is in no way impaired by

lings of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, 1730, 1731.

ark Academy, p. 71.

this statement. Their mission was to add educated men to the colony and, by contrast, to create a desire for higher education before inaugurating a definite educational policy. The first Presbyterians in Delaware, as in neighboring States, were Scotch and Irish, whom the persecutions of Charles II, after the restoration, had driven from home. Their first church in this country was organized in Philadelphia, before or in 1698, by Francis Makemie.[1] The influx from abroad, from 1718 to 1740, was largely Presbyterian. As many as 100 Irish Presbyterians landed at New Castle in September, 1736, and more were daily expected. Before 1738 congregations were organized at New Castle, Wilmington, Brandywine, White Clay, Apoquiminy, Middletown, Dover, Cedar Creek, and Lewes. Nearly two-thirds of the ministers who came over before 1738 were graduates of Glasgow University. Those who came from New England had studied at Yale, and those from Wales were liberally educated. The most distinguished of these to settle in Delaware was Francis Alison, who studied at Glasgow and came to America as a probationer in 1734 or 1735.

The emigration, says Webster, brought over many schoolmasters, and few Presbyterian settlements were without schools during most of the year. It was rare to find one (except among the servants, and even among them it was very rare) who could not read and who did not possess a Bible. The Shorter Catechism was learned at home and recited at school, and the Psalms in meter were largely treasured in the memory. They were the lullaby of the babe, and the song at the loom and at the wheel. * * * Family instruction was not neglected; the Catechism was "gone through" on Sabbaths by parents, children, and servants; sermons were repeated, and the points of doctrine duly compared with the Scripture.[2]

Thus it appears that the Scotch-Irish Presbyterians added no new principle to the educational development of the State, except a better educated ministry; and that education with them, as with the earlier settlers, went hand in hand with religion.

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[1] Records of the Presbyterian Church in United States, 5, 6.

[2] Webster's History of the Presbyterian Church in America, 119–124, 297, *et seq.*

CHAPTER V.

ATE EDUCATION IN THE TOWNS.

PRESENT STATUS.

present but four private schools for both sexes.[1] nington Conference Academy at Dover, the Milford Newark Academy, and the Friends' School at Wil- nploy 27 instructors, of whom 11 are male and 16 are enrollment of students is 509, of whom 284 are male Of these students, 48 are preparing for college or nd 15 have entered college since the close of the 89. The total value of the grounds and buildings of $129,000; the amount of productive funds is $7,000, productive funds is $350. The schools are, therefore, pon public patronage for operating expenses. The umes in their libraries is 3,300. The value of their is $1,400.

WILMINGTON.[2]

ONTINUITY OF EDUCATION IN WILMINGTON.

are can show the continuity of educational history Wilmington. From the establishment of Swedish hundred years ago, until to-day almost every link in ss can be seen. This distinction for Wilmington is geographical situation, near the early settlements, r of the Swedes, who transmitted to their children ors' children the educational heritage which they

is paragraph are for the year 1889 and are taken from the missioner of Education for the year 1888–'89, vol. 2, pp. 982, named is under the care of the Methodists; the second and , and the fourth is claimed by the Friends.

lmington have been reserved for treatment under public edu- Scharf (II, 683) has been used occasionally in this section were not accessible, but catalogues and private records have

brought from Sweden. Whatever the status of education in the country regions during the colonial period, in Wilmington it was usually better. Ferris says:

The teachers were frequently good moral characters, though often very deficient in other respects. The course of instruction very rarely extended beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic. About the year 1787 the committee having the charge of the school "on the hill" procured a teacher from Philadelphia, who was at that time accounted an extraordinary scholar, as he could teach Latin and Greek. He introduced as an additional branch of instruction English grammar; but for want of suitable books for the purpose his effort was almost a failure. No other branches were attempted. Geography was no more thought of as a branch of school education than astrology.[1]

At the beginning of this century, Wilmington was a brick town of about 750 houses,[2] 5,776 inhabitants (according to census of 1810); "9 places of religious worship, a town house, and an academy in which the learned languages" were taught; 21 schools in which there were 650 scholars. Of the school children 168 girls were in 5 schools for that sex only, 131 boys in 4 schools for males, 317 children in 11 schools for the two sexes, and 34 children of color in 1 school, making a total of 650 children. The price of tuition varied with the ability, reputation, and patronage of the tutors, from $10 to $32 per annum for day students. In the boarding schools, where there were usually, at this period, 60 girls, the students were charged $156 per annum. There were also a goodly number of children schooled by charity. So sincere was the interest in education that a writer in Niles's Weekly Register, October 7, 1815, suggests—

The propriety of an interference of legislative authority to oblige the owners of manufacturing establishments to provide a certain portion of literary education for the children they employ.

JOHN THELWELL AND HIS SCHOOL.[3]

John Thelwell was a famous schoolmaster in Wilmington in Revolutionary times.

It would be easier for us to say what he did not than to recount his numerous duties. He was a ruler, an exhorter, and an efficient class leader with these people. He was clerk of the market too, and once he weighed a woman's butter which was wanting in balance, and was about to take away the basket. She being keen-sighted, and he having but one eye, she took the advantage by daubing a pound in the other eye and thus made off with her effects.

He held the office of bellman from time immemorial; as crier many at this day remember Daddy Thelwell and his big bell, tingling as he passed, and warning the burgesses to attend their meeting in the little town chamber over the end of the lower market house, also for sales of property and goods at auction. Those are yet living who heard the joyful sound of his old bell ringing in their ears, arousing them from repose, his

[1] Ferris, 285, 286.

[2] Niles's Weekly Register, October 7, 1815 (Vol. IX, 92-96). Article on Wilmington, Del., and its vicinity; Warden's United States, II, 133.

[3] Montgomery's Reminiscences of Wilmington, 226-229. The sketches of John Thelwell and Mrs. Elizabeth Way are quoted verbatim from Miss Montgomery's book, written in 1851, because it seemed impossible for the writer to present as vivid a picture in his own words.

d long, "Cornwallis is taken." Could you believe, after being
nties, he should be a schoolmaster, and of some note, too?
orn Book, scarcely now remembered, became out of use in this
be imported from England when we undertook to teach our-
the Revolution. It was soon below our expectations, for it
phabetic letters, the numerals, and the Lord's prayer; these,
hin board, about the size of a small spelling-book page, were
with a strip of bright brass for a margin, and covered with a
nsparent as to render the text clearly to be read, yet fully
nwashed fingers of the pupils. One of the British poets has
mentary guide to all the future learning of our advanced age:

l, ancient book, most venerable code,
arning's first cradle and its last abode;
huge unnumber'd volumes which we see
lazy plagiarists are stolen from thee;
future times to thy sufficient store
ll ne'er presume to add one letter more.
e will I sing in homely wainscot bound,
golden verge encompassing around,
faithful horn in front from age to age
serving thy invaluable page.

successor to teach the alphabet—spelling, reading, and gram-
spelling book, with small print like worn-out newspaper type.
d not now humble their minds to study such dim lights.
er Hill Mr. Thelwell had commenced teaching, but was soon
Senate Chamber over the market house, and this, at the corner
reets, was long his room. Most boys and girls here were his
part of their school days. The boys' entrance was front, the
ven in those primitive days there were some unruly children;
strictly to the letter of Solomon's advice and "never spared the
ferule seemed to be in perpetual motion, and were as common
umastics at this day, and woe to the boy mounted to receive
nits or omissions! But wondrous strange if after such an exhi-
rn to school subdued. It can only be accounted for that inde
lly understood in the young Republic. Certainly it was not
day.

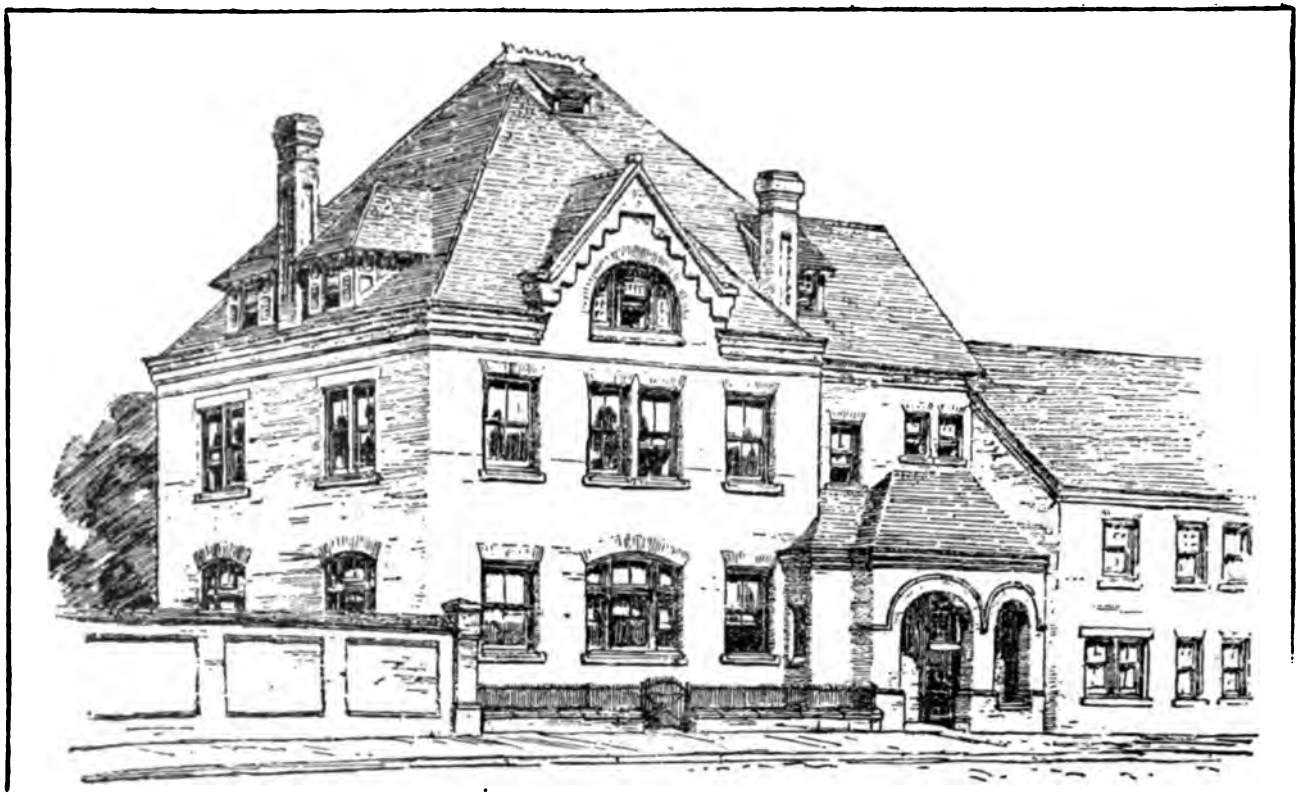
for the senior class, and also Gough's arithmetic, with sums in
would fill a large slate and puzzle many a brain and cause
is school was opened every morning by prayer and singing a

village all declared how much he knew;
s certain he could write and cipher, too;
ds he could measure, times and tides presage,
e'en the story ran that he could gauge.
past is all his fame—the very spot
re many a time he triumphed is forgot.

ll, the eldest daughter, assisted and kept the girls in order;
y woman, but with no literary pretensions. Miss Polly rarely
d and more refined. After the father's death the sisters united
ldren for many years, until this worthy family were removed
employment.

rner of Second street was a school of long standing for girls.

ere in her noisy mansion, skilled to rule,
e village mistress taught her little school;
ell had the boding tremblers learn to trace
e day's disasters in her morning face.



FRIENDS' SCHOOL.

MRS. ELIZABETH WAY.

Mrs. Elizabeth Way was a celebrated teacher of needlework, so important for misses in those times that even the art of shirt-making was strictly attended to, and fitting and cutting were taught here with neatness and care. Most of the older females brought up in this town have been her pupils.

Mrs. Way was a very respectable and worthy woman; she had received an education superior to most women of her day, and was endowed with a strong mind and strict principles of morality, yet an irritable temper was a drawback to her usefulness, and it was annoying to some of her pupils. She was a disciplinarian of the old school and strictly adhered to the wise king's advice. A bunch of switches or cat-o'-nine-tails were freely used to correct the naughty.

Leather spectacles were worn for slighted work. Much attention was paid to the position, for if the head leaned down Jamestown-weed burs strung on tape were ready for a necklace; or if a person stooped a steel was at hand—this was the length of the waist—and held up the chin by a piece extending round the neck, and a strap confined it down. It was not very comfortable to the wearer, though fitted to make the "crooked ways straight;" but a morocco spider worn on the back, confined to the shoulders by a belt, was more usual.

The celebrated painter Benjamin West had been the companion of Mrs. Way's childhood and youth. As absent friends, they kept up a correspondence in age, and it seemed much pleasure to her to relate anecdotes of his early days.

Isaac Hendrickson, of Swedish descent, and then one of the most respectable shipping merchants, married her only daughter, a handsome and lovely woman, and highly esteemed; he owned the opposite corner, where they lived. Mrs. Way was aged, and had declined teaching to live with her daughter; her only son, a young physician, was also an inmate of this family. Mrs. Hendrickson and the doctor both fell victims to the yellow fever of 1798. This sore calamity "brought down her gray hairs in sorrow to the grave."

FRIENDS' SCHOOL.

This school, the oldest in Delaware having a continuous existence, is situated on West street, near Fourth street. It was established in 1748 by some of the first Friends who settled in Wilmington. For nearly a century it was without the city limits, on "Quaker Hill." At first the principal studies taught were "Readin, 'Riten, and 'Rithmetic;" the last named was generally called "ciphering." In 1786 a teacher from Philadelphia was secured, who introduced the study of English grammar, Latin, and Greek, and raised the standard of the school in order to compete with the old academy on Market street.

In 1780 John Webster, who afterwards became an influential citizen of the town, "kept school." He was the last on whom the old-time trick of "barring out the teacher" was played. The night before Christmas the boys climbed into the schoolhouse by the chimneyway, piled wood against the door inside, and nailed the windows down. The next morning at 8 o'clock the master tried the door, as usual, but found it barricaded against his entrance. Through the window came a shout from the largest boy, "We will only let you in if you promise to give us a holiday." "It is not my will that boys shall rule or dictate terms of peace," responded the irate teacher, redoubling his efforts to capture the fort. At 10 o'clock the besieger was joined by three male Friends

eeting. A council of war was held; reënforced and bar, the besieger renewed the attack and pried open the besieged beat a precipitate retreat out the back ll into the arms of the vigilant guard. Beneath the ppeased the outraged law and at the same time per- s reputation to go unsullied.[1]

ad among his pupils James A. Bayard, Louis Mc- Rodney, and E. W. Gilpin; three of these became ators, and the last named chief justice of the State

uilding was erected for girls. In 1883 the question e old building and erecting one more in keeping with ussed; but the love of the antique prevailed, and was spared. An addition, however, was made in the 14,000.

was added in 1889 at a cost of $13,000, and fitted with entific laboratories, and other modern improvements. now accommodate 300 pupils.

ncipal, Isaac T. Johnson, a graduate of Haverford rge of the institution in 1881. His administration prosperous period of its history. During the aca- 91 the total enrollment was 296, the largest in the his- Mr. Johnson is assisted by a faculty of 10, including ceton, Swarthmore, Haverford, and Smith College. the school includes a primary, intermediate, gram- ool. Students are prepared for the best colleges in usiness. An advanced course is offered for the benefit ot intend to go to college. In addition to the usual lectures on physiology and hygiene is given by a lec- ferson Medical College, Philadelphia. Considerable o drawing. The growing demand for physical culture the fitting up of a gymnasium, which is in charge of a . Sargent, of the Hemenway Gymnasium, Harvard

he policy of the school, but the boys and girls have lls. Graduates are admitted to Swarthmore, Haver- ellesley, and Smith College, and to the University of the certificate of the school; an index of the high ork done. Children over 6 years of age are admitted e school is doing excellent work, and is sending stu- the best colleges in the land. Since the first draft of repared in 1889 the school has increased in numbers nd now has the largest enrollment of pupils of any ution ever in the State.[2]

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rtance of this school demands a longer sketch, but the writer getting more material.

WILMINGTON ACADEMY.

The Old Academy of Wilmington, built about 1765, was "a noble stone edifice of the neatest mason work, graced by majestic forest trees on the surrounding grounds, commanding an extensive prospect of land and water."[1] The situation, on Market street, between Eighth and Ninth, was indicated in 1774 by the famous preacher George Whitefield in the following words: "In the academy woods at Wilmington I preached to 3,000 persons." The ground upon which it stood was probably donated by a Swede, Stalcop. "Public-spirited men erected it, and the fathers of the country were overseers." The following distinguished men were the first trustees: Rev. Lawrence Girelius, Bishop White, Hon. Thomas McKean, Dr. Robert Smith, Thomas Gilpin, Dr. Nicholas Way, and Joseph Shallcross, Esq. The first principal was Robert Patterson, father of Dr. Robert M. Patterson, of Philadelphia, president of the United States mint. At the outbreak of the Revolution he instructed his pupils in military tactics, and carried many of them with him into the Continental army. He joined the New Jersey line, and served as major in the paymaster's department during the war. Instruction was suspended for several years, and the "noble fabrick was converted into a barrack and hospital" for the contending armies.

The following is the draft of a plan of education for the Wilmington Academy,[2] which was adopted by the trustees of the said academy at their meetings on the 2d and 22d days of May, 1786. "The object of this Academy is to promote the important cause of Religion, Morality, and Literature." The officers included a principal, a professor of mathematics, a professor of languages, and a professor of English. When one of these professors became "overburthened with pupils" the trustees or their committee were empowered to appoint an usher or ushers to assist him. The principal, in addition to his executive duties, was expected to lecture on "Moral Philosophy, namely, Ethics and Natural Law." Essays in Latin as well as in English were required from the pupils. For the two best English essays rewards and honors were offered while the authors of the two best Latin essays from each class received "some honorary distinction at the hands of the trustees."

CURRICULUM.

Languages.—As five years are conceived to be sufficient in general to finish a course of classical education, the following books are fixed upon for the classes of each year.

For the first or lowest class: Rudiman's Rudiments; Sententiæ Pueriles; Selectæ e Veteri Testamento; Mair's Introduction.

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[1] Montgomery's Reminiscences of Wilmington, 293 *et seq.* See also the John Dickinson pamphlets and Scharf's History of Delaware, II, 686, for facts concerning this academy.

[2] The writer is indebted to Mr. Frederick D. Stone, librarian of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, for the use of the John Dickinson Pamphlets, which furnished the facts which follow.

ar's Commentaries; Nepos; Ovid begun with Prosody.
continued; Sallust; Cicero de Amicitia and de Senectute; Terence
mmar.
gil and Livy; Greek Testament; Lucian and Poetæ Minores

e, Tacitus, Cicero, Homer, Xenophon, Demosthenes.
language will be taught by one of the Professors of the Acad-
uardians require it.
two higher Latin classes shall every day attend the Professor of
time and in the manner as the Principal, Latin and Mathemat-
x and appoint, each pupil paying for the use of the mathematical
lings and six-pence per quarter extra.
the rules of arithmetic, vulgar and decimal, the four rules of Al-
od of solving simple Equations, Euclid Book I, Geography, and
.
id, Trigonometry (plain and spherical), Surveying and Naviga-
s also of Astronomy and of the Newtonian System, the Solution
ns, and the principles of the conic sections."
Grammar. "Blair's Lectures upon Rhetoric ought to be partic-
The higher English Classics must be frequently employed in
sition." Reading and Penmanship.

year began in November. The following were elected
s Henry Wharton, D. D., Principal; Mr. Patrick Mur-
f Languages. A Professor of Mathematics and a Pro-
were to be selected by a committee consisting of Rev.
s, John Dickinson, Dr. Nicholas Way, and Jacob Broom,
d to act in concurrence with the principal.
tuition is two guineas per annum in the English and
e other schools." "Young gentlemen may be accom-
est boarding houses, washing included, at the rate of
Sunday attendance upon public worship was made

ent scientists, among whom were Benjamin Franklin,
Benjamin Rush, and James Madison, held a meeting
Dr. Franklin experimented with electricity on this
ronomical observations were made from the cupola.[1]
ys of the Republic one of the first general conventions
t Episcopal Church met here. The building was con-
anufactory before the century closed. A few years
was reorganized, and the following new trustees were
. Latimer, Dr. E. A. Smith, Dr. Read, Dr. James Til-
edford, and R. Hamilton, Esq. The school was divided
ents, male and female, and a competent teacher was
. The annual examinations, which were public, are
y Miss Montgomery:[2] "The boys had recitations and
y day. The evening closed by exhibitions from well-
Shakespeare, which afforded amusement to crowded
ctators." In 1803 a charter was granted naming it

[1] ery, 295; Scharf, II, 686. [2] Montgomery, 295.

the "College of Wilmington," and the trustees were empowered to raise money by lottery for its support. The last principal (1828) was Byron Lawrence, a graduate of Oxford University. The building was sold soon afterwards, and was torn down in 1832. Dwelling houses were afterwards erected upon the site.

MASTER WILSON.

Master Wilson, a Scotchman, goes down in history as the first man in Delaware to oppose higher education of women. He kept a school for both sexes as early as 1760, and thought it unnecessary for girls to "go in arithmetic further than through simple Division, 'cause it was no use; only tom-boys, with big slates, would care to cipher in the Double Rule of Three"—an argument interesting if not irresistible.

JAMES FILSON.

James Filson [1] first taught in Wilmington before the Revolution, and again in 1785. A wounded arm prevented him from "thrashing the boys" to his heart's content, so he abandoned his profession and joined Daniel Boone in Kentucky. He made the first complete map of that State and became its first historian. The Filson Club which is to-day making valuable contributions to American historical literature, especially of the southwest, properly perpetuates his name.

WILLIAM COBBETT AND HENRY PEPPER.

Probably the most distinguished schoolmaster that Wilmington ever had was William Cobbett,[2] the English essayist, politician, and agriculturist. Cobbett came to America about 1792, and for a time taught English to French refugees. Then he settled in Wilmington and assisted Henry Pepper, a graduate of Dublin University, in the management of a school on Shipley street, "where most of the respectable

[1] Scharf, II, 686.

[2] Montgomery, 313, 315. William Cobbett (1762–1835) was of peasant origin and self-educated. In 1783 he acted as copying clerk to a London attorney and for the next eight years served in the English army in Nova Scotia. In 1791 he returned to London and supported the agitation for an increase of soldiers' pay. This involved him in a libel suit, which endangered his liberty; therefore, he came to America. His satirization of Priestley made his career. He published, also, in this country "Le Tuteur Anglais," "The Censor," "Porcupine's Gazette," "The Rushlight," and reprinted Chalmer's scurrilous "Life of Thomas Paine." Twice in America was he indicted for libel. He returned to England in 1800. There he published "The Porcupine" daily for one year and "Cobbett's Weekly Political Register" for thirty-three years, until his death. He paid a second visit to America in 1817, to escape a second imprisonment for libel, and remained two years. In 1821 he opened a seed farm at Kensington. By 1830 he had become the leading English journalist. He was a member of the first reform Parliament. Cobbett's political and historical theories were crude and his economic principles often absurd, but he showed a genuine interest in the poor, especially the agricultural laborer. (Dictionary of National Biography, article on Cobbett.)

le age were in part educated." "He gave the credit in political debates to this town." "He had lived," hotbed of democracy." On Quaker Hill, beneath the s, whose political horizon was then so brilliant, he defend royalty. But after his removal to Philadelphia d into the hands of the Federalists and gave loose tendencies in bold and scathing effusions under the "Peter Porcupine." Henry Pepper, at Cobbett's ned his flourishing school at Wilmington and assisted hing The Porcupine. Soon, however, he discovered a in it and withdrew, for those who had been Cobbett's s poverty were the first attacked.

MICHAEL MARTEL.

l, a fugitive from the French revolution, taught school t the close of the last century. "His preëminent nguage—a proficient in fifteen—with a wonderful nicate what he knew, acquired a fame for teaching een equaled in Boston or New York," remarks Mont- of the honorable in all these places were his pupils; he taught persons of every age, and numerous appli- dismissed." He taught for love and "often remarked her pay young persons fond of study for the pleasure than for any sum to teach an idle, stupid youth." however, was accompanied by an indifference to busi- reduced him to penury. He had been the intimate Burr and the preceptor of his daughter, Theodosia, to ght five languages and dedicated his works. In the ulness he was struck down by paralysis and was ever orted by his grateful pupils. Aaron Burr passed ton in 1803, while Vice-President of the United States, of Martel's affliction and destitution. With charac- le, Burr replied, "I know him not," but added, when he letter of introduction which he had given Martel own I wrote that letter when I knew him, but I know

LEWIS CASS.

82–1867) taught school in Wilmington in Martel's day.[2] 1812 he was for eighteen years governor of Michigan of the most potent factors in the development of the was Secretary of War in 1831, under Andrew Jack- rs later, was sent to Paris as envoy extraordinary. Senator he voted for the fugitive slave law in 1850. ade Secretary of State under President Buchanan.

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ntgomery, 71. [2] Scharf, II, 683.

THE HILLES BOARDING SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LADIES.

"Somewhere about 1797, Mr. Crips erected the mansion long known as the Old Boarding School, which in that day was thought a fine building." A few years later Mrs. Capron, of Philadelphia, opened a boarding school in the house, but was succeeded in 1809 by Joshua Maule and Eli Hilles. After the death of Maule, Eli Hilles associated with him his brother Samuel and these two erected a large building at the corner of Tenth and King streets. The school professed to give thorough instruction "in the branches of a plain English education," but French also was imparted to those who wished it. It flourished for many years and attracted students from nearly all the States, as well as the West Indies. Eli Hilles withdrew in 1828, and Samuel Hilles, four years later, was called to Haverford College, which had just been founded. John M. Smith was a subsequent principal. "It is now conducted," writes Miss Montgomery in 1851, "by Dubre Knight, uniting a day school, and it sustains a high character."[1]

BRANDYWINE ACADEMY.

This school was founded in 1799; incorporated in 1815 and again in 1832. Mr. McNevin conducted it in 1830 as an English and classical academy.[2]

JOHN BULLOCK'S BOARDING SCHOOL AND OTHER SCHOOLS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

John Bullock's Boarding School was established in 1821 by John Bullock,[3] a Friend, and continued in operation until 1846. Its splendid reputation brought it students from distant parts of the Union and the West Indies.

Wilmington Boarding School for boys was established by Samuel Smith in 1829.

Friend's School, at Ninth and Tatnall streets, was originally on Market street above Eleventh. It was endowed by Samuel Canby in 1832 with $1,000 and a lot, on which a school building was at once erected. This building was replaced in 1874 by the one now in use.

Young Ladies' Institute was opened in 1851. Thomas M. Cann, A. M., was principal in 1854 and there were 69 students in attendance.

Taylor and Jackson's Academy was founded in 1857. It was changed to Taylor's Academy about 1871. In that year 225 pupils were enrolled and in the next 209. The building is now used by the public schools.

Academy of the Visitation, founded in 1868, is one of the best private schools in the city.

W. A. Reynold's *Classical and Mathematical Institute* flourished for a few years, enrolling in 1871–72 more than 100 students.

Brandywine Seminary was established in 1878 by W. S. McNair, A. M., in the Institute building. It was removed soon afterwards to the

[1] Montgomery, 268, 269, 270. [2] Scharf, II, 683. [3] Montgomery, 330.

, Tenth and Market streets, and was abandoned a
t was a coeducational school, with a kindergarten

RUGBY ACADEMY.

was opened for boys by Samuel W. Murphy, A. M.,
872. Wilson M. Foulk succeeded Dr. Murphy in the
academy October 18, 1887. In 1888–89 the faculty
nembers; sixty-three boys were in attendance, and
lepartments—primary, junior, and senior. Two im-
the school are the military drill and the literary
by and the Bryant. The academy occupies an ele-
in the Masonic Temple. It has prepared many boys
siness. A recent catalogue states:
m and ambition of the principal of Rugby to have
in Wilmington, but rather to be able to offer for the
e community the best school."

THE MISSES HEBB'S SCHOOL.

was formed by Mrs. John K. Kane for the education
friends' children and placed in charge of Miss Hebb.
ew the Misses Hebb's school, which was established
er of Ninth and West streets, as a boarding and day
dies and children. Forty pupils were enrolled the
e had so increased by the third year that the school
to a larger building on Market street.
g especially adapted to the wants of the school was
er of Franklin street and Pennsylvania avenue—an
n.
the school is to furnish a broad education and liberal
e fitted for the best colleges. Opportunity is offered
glish education and for the study of German. The
usic and art are under the direction of competent
al attention is given to the French language and

a flourishing condition, and the need of more ample
ly appeared.[1]

NEW CASTLE.

d fifty years ago New Castle was a "goodly town of
houses," with almost as many inhabitants as it now
is the old battle ground of Dutchman, Swede, and
eof Diedrich Knickerbocker so veraciously gossips.
rge Fox held the first Quaker meeting in Delaware.

ted for the above facts to the principal of the school, Miss

Hither the city of Amsterdam, as early as 1656, agreed to send a schoolmaster and to erect here a schoolhouse. On this spot, in 1657, landed Evert Pietersen, the first Dutch schoolmaster of Delaware; opened a school with twenty-five pupils; comforted the sick, "read God's word, and led in singing;" and for his services received more than 1,000 florins. Then came Arent Eversen Molenaer, who was paid about 150 florins in 1660 for similar services. Next, and last of the Dutch schoolmasters of whom we have record, came Abelius Zetscoven. He acquired such a good reputation in 1663 that the Tinnekonk people sought to engage him to teach their young, but New Amstel (New Castle) would not give him up.

New Castle next emerges into view in 1708, when Oldmixon tells us: "Here is a Court-House, and 2,500 Souls are computed to inhabit here." Three years later John French and Samuel Lowman, of the vestry of the New Castle church, petitioned the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel for a schoolmaster. In 1729, George Ross, pastor of the New Castle church, petitioned the same Society for a "small salary of six pounds per annum" for a catechist or schoolmaster. He had written two years before that the "office & character of such a person is generally very mean & contemptible here."[1]

The State, on June 13, 1772, granted a lot of land in the northwest corner of the graveyard of Emanuel Church for the support of a school. The land was vested in David Finney, John Thompson, George Read, Thomas McKean, and George Monro as trustees, "for the erecting a schoolhouse or schoolhouses thereon and to be for that use forever.[2] An academy built on this lot in 1800 was incorporated January 30, 1801. The following quotation is from the act of incorporation:

> Whereas inhabitants of New Castle and vicinity have by voluntary contribution erected an academy in the town upon a lot of ground in the public square, which lot was vested in trustees for school purposes, etc.

The trustees usually gave the whole responsibility of the school to the principal, so that, while in theory it was public, in practice it soon became private.

Under the principalship of A. B. Wiggins, many years later, the school was known as the New Castle Institute, having lost many of the characteristics of a public school. When the free-school system was established in Delaware William F. Lane, who was then principal of the Institute, became the head of the public schools as well. At length the academy lost its individuality and was absorbed by the public schools of the town.

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[1] Broadhead, I, 651; II, 191. Oldmixon, 178. Blackmar, 162. Laws of Delaware, III, 200-205, V, 206; Perry, V, 30, 47, 55. Laws of New Castle, Kent, and Sussex, II, 268; III, 200-205; see also chapter on education among the Dutch in this monograph, p. 22, and Scharf on New Castle.

[2] Laws of Delaware, I, 516. George Read and Thomas McKean signed the Declaration of Independence.

ity School.—An act was passed by the general as-
8, 1817, to incorporate the New Castle Benevolent
rpose of establishing a charity school. The first
ociety were Ann Johns, Anna M'Callmont, Sally
ary Riddle. Only Christian women were allowed to
teachers, and only destitute orphans and white
roper objects of charity, were admitted into the

PAULKLAND AND CLAYMONT.

hompson, M. A., opened St. John's School at Brandy-
0. It was under the religious influence of the Prot-
hurch, and during its short life enrolled but few
in B. Clemson, D. D., had for a time a select family
.

GOW, TRAP, AND OTHER SCHOOLS.

r School was incorporated January 27, 1803. Trap
tle County, was incorporated January 18, 1821, and
uthorized to raise by a lottery $600. Union School
the same county, was incorporated, February 5,
23, of the next year Franklin School, in New Castle
orated.[1]

DELAWARE CITY.

y Academy was chartered February 16, 1859.[2] It
ber, 1858, with J. W. Macbeth as principal, and
years, numbering during one term 80 pupils. In
closed, and of late years a private school has been
ilding by Miss Harlow.

MIDDLETOWN.

lemy was erected from the proceeds of a lottery,
t of the general assembly of January 3, 1824. The
gers and empowered them to "institute, carry on,
in one or more classes, for raising a sum of money
0 clear of all expenses;" and to apply this sum to
building sufficiently large to contain rooms for an
tary school, and also a room for public worship, to
inations of churches."[3]
a supplementary act was passed for raising $4,000
an endowment fund. May 10, 1825, the lottery
John B. Yeates, of New York, Archibald McIntire,

s of Delaware, VI, 34, 119; IV, 409.
., XI, 444.
., VI, 372.

of Philadelphia, and Thomas and James Skeldig, of New York, for $10,000. The first trustees were Richard Mansfield, Dr. Arnold Naudain, John Eddowes, William Crawford, and John Ginn.

In 1826–'27 the new building was constructed and Rev. Joseph Wilson elected principal, at an annual salary of $400. The school was opened October 15, 1827. Miss Isabella Anderson took charge of the female students. In 1830 Samuel G. Appleton succeeded to the principalship, but resigned in December. From that date it was closed until Dr. Henry L. Davis took charge in 1832. In 1838 Mr. Harris was principal; then Joseph A. White. In 1840, 33 pupils were in attendance. In 1842 William Harris was principal. Rev. J. H. Tyng succeeded him. Mr. Payson Williams opened a female boarding school in the building in 1844. The following were subsequent principals: 1846, Thomas Madden, Rev. Henry Fries; 1855, James McDowell; 1865, Rev. Charles H. Halloway; 1867, J. E. Newman. In 1868 H. A. Woods and W. J. Hicks were joint principals, and in 1871 H. A. Woods became sole principal. Then there were 104 students in attendance. In 1878 the building was leased to the board of public education and the academy was abandoned. Now Mr. W. B. Tharp, principal of public schools, conducts in the building a boarding as well as a day school.

SMYRNA.

Probably the earliest school in Smyrna was the Southern Boarding School, established and controlled by the Friends. It was closed before 1825.

January 29, 1817, The Mechanics' Academy of Smyrna was incorporated, and remained in operation for a few years.[1]

The Smyrna Union School was incorporated February 20, 1852, with a capital stock of $15,000.[2]

Rev. F. M. Chatham, in 1866, was principal of the Smyrna English Classical Academy, which occupied The Friends' Meeting-House. The building was destroyed by fire in 1874 and the school was closed.

It is noteworthy that a free school was opened in Smyrna as early as 1818 by the young ladies of the town, incorporated as the Female Union Society. Its object was the education of those too poor to pay tuition at the private schools. The school continued in operation until the adoption of the public school system in 1829. Smyrna Seminary was under the principalship of Tarleton H. Bean, B. E., in 1870–'71. During that year 125 pupils were enrolled.

DOVER.

Dover[3] has long enjoyed a reputation for excellent schools. The town was probably founded before 1708, for in that year Oldmixon wrote:

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[1] Laws of Delaware, v, 228. [2] *Ibid.*, xi, 137.

[3] Oldmixon, 155. Humphrey's Hist. Acct. of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, 168–169. Luff's Biography, quoted by Scharf. Laws of Delaware, iv, 304–308. Ledoum's Rise of Methodism, quoted by Scharf. Letters from Prominent Citizens.

urch of England congregation." Moreover, four years
nas Crawford was appointed missionary to Dover
ary of £50, by the Society for the Propagation of the
hed regularly at Dover Church. He seems, also, to
t schoolmaster in the region, for he informs us that at
one man in the county understood how the common
to be read, and he was forced to instruct them pri-
the method of reading the Liturgy." His duties
catechizing of the children and the religious instruc-
s, whom he found dull. Humphrey, writing in 1730,
s "very thin of Houses, containing not above 40 Fam-
ketch of schools is given by Dr. Nathaniel Luff, who
1767–1768. He writes:

er set on my feet and introduced to my associates than I was
hildren fight cocks so did these corrupt youths of Dover entrap
arded into a maze of error and dissipation, proportioned to each
stances.

* * * * *

for the promotion of their children were excessively gulled by
nacquainted with the learned languages and sciences, prompted
ired by wealth, they were willing to go great lengths but for
ledge they expended their money to little purpose, and estab-
re unsubstantial and hard to eradicate. Thus it was that after
hool to acquire a knowledge of the Latin language, I was so
at on my going to Philadelphia I had to begin again, and I
ition so diverse that it would have been for my benefit had it
and the school tuition was more than two prices in Dover to
elphia, so that I had to pay double prices for erroneous princi-

the words of this writer that the people of Dover,
he eighteenth century, made liberal expenditures for
ough the incompetency of teachers did not receive
s. This, however, was by no means the case in the
resent century when the academy at Dover furnished
ntages barely surpassed by the colleges of the times—
pinion of students still alive.
ally on High street (now a part of Governor's avenue)
se in which was kept a school known as the Dover
he great Methodist leader George Whitefield is said
once, with such fervor that he was heard distinctly
, about 300 yards distant, court being then in session.
v. Freeborn Garretson preached the first Methodist
from a platform in front of the academy. * * *
d been made between Dr. Stephen Megaw, rector of
Dover, and the Rev. Francis Asbury, then working in
Episcopalians, to educate the youth in this vicinity.
d James Coleman to come from Virginia to Dover,

where for a time he was engaged in teaching a school for boys."[1] Many years afterwards the old building was abandoned and fell into decay.

In 1785 an effort was made to abolish this spasmodic system of private school by introducing into the general assembly a bill whose object was to place the academy property under the control of a board of trustees. It failed to pass, however.

"There was no schoolhouse in Dover" in 1803, says Willard Hall, but there was a teacher, a "foreigner who hired a room and admitted scholars at prices."[2]

January 10, 1810, a petition was presented to the general assembly in which it was stated "that the establishing of an academy at Dover would be of great public utility, that there being no seminary of this kind in Kent County must be a subject of regret * * * that an academy might be established at this place, and that such means might be obtained by a lottery authorized for the purpose, etc."

January 23, 1810, the general assembly passed an act to incorporate Dover Academy with the following trustees: Thomas Clayton, Andrew Naudain, Cornelius P. Comegys, Richard Cooper, James Harper, John Fisher, Peter Caverly, Willard Hall, James Sykes, William McClyment, Nathaniel Smithers, and Henry M. Ridgely. They were authorized to raise the sum of $10,000 by lottery to assist in the purchase of a lot and to erect a suitable building for school purposes.[3] The trustees purchased a large brick building at the south end of King (now State) street, which in Revolutionary days was the residence and place of business of John Banning. Here the old academy was maintained until ten or twelve years after the passage of the free school law of 1829. After 1832 a public school was conducted for several years in the lower story, while the upper rooms were used by the academy.

No records of the academy are extant, but the recollections of early pupils furnish the following list of teachers after 1818: Obadiah Foote, Thomas Mann, Ezra Scovill, Mr. Meeker, Ezra Boswell, Edward Higbee, Theodore Gallaudet, Aaron Williams, Rev. Ashbel Strong, Charles G. Ridgely. Nearly all of these were New Englanders and graduates of the best colleges. It is doubtful if there has ever been an academy in Delaware where a more comprehensive education could be secured than at Dover Academy during the period 1827–1832. Special opportunities were extended to students who could not go to college to cover the college course at home. An advanced course in Greek, Latin, and mathematics was followed by many of the students with great success. Hon. J. P. Comegys, the lamented chief justice of Delaware, stated to the writer that one of the best scholars he had ever known was educated

[1] Ledoum's Rise of Methodism, quoted by Scharf.

[2] Barnard's Journal of Education, XVI, 129.

[3] Another act of incorporation is dated January 29, 1818. See Laws of Delaware, V, 301, 302.

emy. Probably the most successful of the principals
bel Strong, who conducted the school about 1827.
certainly an ideal teacher in his day. Among other
d theatrical performances in which the older students
nal men participated; and the plays were said to be
ed. Of course I was then too young for criticism,
y were quite as much applauded as the perform-
ing players who occasionally visited the capital."[1]
s paid to elocution by the Rev. Ashbel Strong, who
er and elocutionist as the State knew. "His pro-
emphasis, and gesticulation were perfect. All of
to the bar were superior speakers there and on
um."[2] The school, during his principalship, num-
f whom about 40 were alive five years ago.

hers were firm adherents to the principle of corporal
eir jurisdiction over pupils was enforced even at
of amusement.

e inauguration of the free school system of 1829 a
thematical, and English school was kept in the old
nd later in one of the rooms of the old academy. It
t by Rev. Henry Cruse, with his brother-in-law,
et, as usher, and afterwards by the latter alone.
olars was limited to fifteen.

det, who still survives, is the brother of Thomas H.
brated teacher of the deaf and dumb. During his
hool for girls in the lower part of the academy con-
Elizabeth Thomas. The following were numbered
f Gallaudet in 1825: Joseph P. Comegys, late chief
re; George Comegys; George P. Fisher, ex-First
ited States Treasury; William R. Morris; Andrew
e Smithers; Nathaniel B. Smithers, ex-Member of
Ridgely; James L. Heverin.

e public schools of the town were, at intervals, con-
lemy, but in 1882 it was converted into a carriage

part of the present century another school for the
s and English was kept in Dover on King street by
achelor church parson. Stephen Sykes was a mem-
t family of that name and the brother of the grand-
rge Sykes, late of the United States Army. He
tion of a learned man.

wgill conducted a seminary in the Hillyard house on
1846 to 1849. She was succeeded by Dr. Edward

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of Hon. George P. Fisher, ex-First Auditor of the Treasury at
riter.

er from Hon. Joseph P. Comegys.

Worrell, who continued the school at irregular intervals until his death in 1865. The school was conducted by his widow from 1865 to 1872, when it was abandoned.

The last of the old select schools to furnish a liberal education was opened in 1852 by Rev. Thomas G. Murphy, pastor of the Presbyterian Church. English, Latin, French, music, and drawing were taught. He erected a building about 1 mile out of town, in which he continued the school for six or seven years with an average attendance of 18 or 20 pupils.[1]

The establishment of the Wilmington Conference Academy in 1873 met the wants of the town so completely that there have been none but primary private schools since that time.

WYOMING.

Wyoming Institute of Delaware was founded about 1866. It was most successful under the principalship of Rev. M. Heath, A. M., who enrolled 101 pupils in 1879. J. E. Perry was principal in 1880, and soon afterwards the school was abandoned.

CAMDEN.

The Union Academy of Camden was organized in 1815 and incorporated by act of the general assembly on January 13, 1816. For many years this was one of the most thorough and successful educational institutions in the State. An excellent classical and academic education could be secured there at the hands of some of the most skillful instructors in the land. In 1857 the district schoolhouse was burned and the old academy building was rented by the public school commissioners. March 7, 1885, the trustees of the Camden Union Academy conveyed their right and title in the academy to United School Districts Nos. 22 and 99, and it is now the property of the State for the use of the public schools of Camden.

FELTON.

Felton Seminary was founded in 1868 by a stock company, acting under a charter granted by the legislature in 1867. Robert H. Skinner was the organizer and first principal of the school. In 1870–71 there were 107 pupils enrolled and 110 in 1873–74. The school was closed in 1885 and the building converted into a sanitarium.[3]

The following is a complete list of the principals:

Robert H. Skinner, 1868–1872; W. E. Knox, 1873–74; Robert H. Skinner, 1875; Collins and Craig, 1876–77; W. G. Lewis and Son, 1878–79; L. A. T. Iobe, 1880–81; H. W. Hunt, 1882–83; M. H. Bowman, 1884–85.

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[1] An act was passed March 22, 1867, to incorporate Dover Academy, but we have no record of its establishment. *See* Laws of Delaware, XII, 184.

[2] Laws of Delaware, V, 113.

[3] Miss Lucretia M. Stevenson, of Felton, has kindly collected these facts. *See also* Laws of Delaware, XII, 319.

FARMINGTON.

he villagers James M. Williams opened a select school 1868. He was succeeded by the following principals: William R. Lord, John P. Gordy, Wilbur F. Gordy, y, A. C. Heath, William B. Tharp, and W. S. Robinson. ms afterwards became principal of the Wilmington emy. John P. Gordy won the degree of doctor of a German university and is now professor of pedagog- ersity, and University Extension lecturer on American niversity of Chicago. He has translated into Eng- r's History of Modern Philosophy, Descartes and His written a monograph on the Growth of the Normal lished by the U. S. Bureau of Education. Wilbur F. ved a reputation in the North as a schoolmaster and books. His "Pathfinder in American History" was re cordiality than critics are wont to bestow. He is educational work at Hartford, Conn. Under the man- P. Gordy and Wilbur F. Gordy, both of whom were talented men, the school was known far and wide on At one time more than one hundred pupils were en- hom came from remote parts of the State. During its n years it prepared many boys for college and aroused re to a keener interest in education.

MILFORD.

olmaster of whom we have any record in the town of liam Johnson, who kept a private school in the latter entury. In his note-book appear the following notices: 25, 1788: "Notice is taken that James Train called a liar. Witness, William Pope." "Notice is taken nson was absent from the school till the evening." that James Train came to an engagement in school system of private schools has been continued until the ying success. An academy was kept in the Masons' y years.

igh School was under the principalship of J. Leighton 3 to 1873. In 1869–70, 70 pupils were enrolled.

cademic and Collegiate Institute enrolled 78 pupils in rincipalship of William Lord. Mr. Lumb and Rev. L. e subsequent principals. Milford Seminary was in Maranville, A. M., in 1879–80.

emale Institute was conducted by Rev. Mr. Kennedy, esbyterian church of Milford, for six or seven years.

lassical Academy was incorporated in 1885. The cap- ot to exceed $20,000.[1] George Rugg was principal for

[1] Laws of Delaware, XVII, 930–932.

a time. He was succeeded by W. J. Lloyd, who had charge of the academy for two years. In 1887 the present principal, A. C. Arnold, took charge of the school, which is now in an excellent condition. Messrs. Rugg and Arnold are graduates of Harvard and Mr. Lloyd a graduate of Amherst.

SEAFORD.

The Seaford Academy was incorporated January 29, 1819. In unison with the Free Masons of the town the trustees erected a school building and hall, where an academy was maintained for many years. The teachers were men of ability and considerable experience and attracted students from distant States. Rev. Leonidas Polk, bishop of the Episcopal Church and major-general in the Confederate States army, was once a student at this school. The academy was closed before the Civil War, but good select schools were at once established in the town. In 1865 an unsuccessful attempt was made to place one of them, the Seaford Academy, upon an enduring basis. In 1885 Thomas H. Breerwood established a private school, in which persons preparing for public school teaching received instruction. The principal was called a few months later to take charge of the public schools of the town and the private school was abandoned.

GEORGETOWN.

Schools have been maintained at Georgetown since the establishment of the town in 1791.

In February, 1812, the school was incorporated and conducted as a private enterprise.[1] In 1836 a new school building, known later as the "old academy," to distinguish it from the new one erected in 1843, was constructed by means of the accrued income of the school fund and voluntary contributions. Public schools were conducted in it until the erection of the present public-school building in 1885.

The first academy at Georgetown was opened by Dr. Davis, who in the winter of 1825 announced that, "by Divine permission," he would open an academy January 1, 1826. Ten years later the Rev. Mr. Kingsbury conducted the school. The Free Masons and the citizens of the town, acting together through a board of trustees, erected the present academy building between 1841 and 1843. The lower story was completed for school purposes in 1843 by the aid of a fund secured through a lottery.[2]

The following is a list of principals: Loring Johnson, 1840–43; John L. McKim (a graduate of Dickinson College), 1844–45; James R. Finch (Dickinson), 1845–46; Oliver W. Davis, 1847–48; Edgar Chronkite

[1] Laws of Delaware, IV, 495.

[2] The writer gratefully acknowledges his indebtedness to Rev. J. Leighton McKim, principal, 1855–56, for the list of principals and the following facts.

49; John L. McKim and Rufus Waples, 1849–50; rbee (Bowdoin), 1851–53; Miers C. Cornwell (Yale), ton McKim, 1855–56; James M. Rench (Delaware

ademy was for many years a prosperous and useful *ar excellence*, the high school of the county. It was ntil the outbreak of the Civil War. About the same n and Breakwater Railroad came to town, and was track directly through the little campus, less than 40 ol building and between it and the village. If any- quired to terminate the existence of the school it was whenever opportunity offered, by the indifference of

d teachers who have conducted the academy since entioned George F. Plummer (a graduate of Racine urn Hargis (Dickinson), Mr. Peabody (Amherst), Downham, who was in charge from 1881 to 1885, when andoned.

MILTON.

y was incorporated April 7, 1869.[1] Good private tained at Milton for many years. St. John's Baptist latest, was managed by Frederick Thompson, M. A.[2]

LAUREL.

l far and wide in ante-bellum days for its good schools. Commercial Academy was incorporated in 1867, and 876–77 shows R. W. Breerwood to have been princi-

LEWES.

his ancient town is all but lost in the mists of tradi- is that more than 30 Dutchmen settled hereabouts in ey to Indian vengeance a few months later. A family e as to be noteworthy if not entirely credible, has it named Wiltbank in 1650 settled at Lewes, then an d donated a lot for a schoolhouse.

on, which the Lewes people would about as readily ves, is that the first school for girls in America was No original records have been found either to prove

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, xii, 525.

writer to [illegible] further information concerning the private Laurel has been fruitless.

500. Letters from Dr. David L. Mustard and Miss Mary T. als of Philadelphia, i, 287. Oldmixon, 179. Scharf, ii, 1230. , 316. Chapter on Newark Academy, p. 71.

or disprove it. But the following testimony indicates that Lewes had a reputation for preëminence in female education two hundred years ago. Further than this we dare not go. Watson, referring to the latter part of the seventeenth century, remarks: "At this early period of time so much had the little Lewistown at our southern cape the preeminence in female tuition, that Thomas Lloyd, the deputy governor, preferred to send his younger daughters from Philadelphia to that place to finish their education." Lewes was at this time, says Oldmixon, "a handsome large Town, standing on the lovely bank of a River, between the Town and the Sea, which makes the Harbour."

It must not be forgotten that the Lewes Presbytery in 1738 set in motion the current of higher education in Delaware by petitioning the Philadelphia Synod to subject candidates for the ministry to a searching examination in the "several branches of philosophy and divinity, and the languages;" and that this petition led to the founding of the New London Academy in Pennsylvania, the germ from which Newark Academy and Delaware College developed.

Female teachers were employed at a very early date in Lewes. The first "schoolmarm" was the widow of Wrexham Lewis; the second, also a widow, was Mrs. Thompson.[1]

The first schoolmaster named in the records of Lewes is John Russell, who joined the functions of an educator to those of a deputy recorder in 1734. Two years later Thomas Penn ordered that the income from the Great Marsh[2] be devoted to the support of education in Lewes.

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[1] Mrs. Margaret Coleman, one of the oldest residents, is the source of this information.

[2] Scharf, II, 1230. The history of the Great Marsh furnishes us another survival of Germanic customs till our own day that deserves a place, because of its age, by the side of the Boston Common, which dates from 1634. The marsh is northwest of the town, and is bounded on the northeast by Lewes Creek, and by Broadkiln Creek on the northwest. One of the first references to it in the records is found in a suit at court, September, 1687, in which "Jonathan Bailey was summoned to appear before the grand jury, for about since the beginning of the year 1686 contemning and despising the neighbors, not only the King's Highway to the own use which said highway hath been Made, Worne, and accustomed for many years, neither had the neighbors any other roads or highway to ye commons, commonly called Marshes, either to fetch hay, look after their cattle or other orations, but alsoe to the only known Ancient place of a A burying ground for the town of Lewis, &c." "He also had placed the frame of a windmill thereon and alsoe hath not only confidently and impudently denyed and Refused thy neighbors the use of ye said ground to bury their dead, forbiding them or any of them to come upon the said ground." The grand jury found a true bill against Bailey, and he was convicted of an infringement upon the rights of the public. Forty years later Thomas Penn confirmed the people of Lewes in the right to the use of the commons, and it has retained its public character to this day. Dr. D. L. Mustard writes the author that the "great marsh is still used for grazing." Annually the grass-bearing sections are divided into lots and the grass is sold at public auction, the proceeds going into the town treasury. It has been many years since the funds accruing from this source were appropriated to schools.

oolhouse was erected on Second street, near Ship Car-
in which school was kept for more than one hundred
was executed May 4, 1762, for the lot on which it stood
ank to David Hall, Matthew Wilson, and other citizens
tion of 10 shillings, "as well as for the promotion and
of the youth of the county, being taught and educated
s of religion and virtue, useful knowledge, and learning."
t of the schoolmasters who occupied the building was
, who lived at the beginning of this century. The school
ed in 1818 and a board of trustees appointed.

Hindman, afterwards principal of Newark Academy,
first classical schools in Lewes in 1795. Its success led
shment of Lewes Academy, for which a building was
r McLaughlin was appointed principal of the new acad-
d was succeeded two years later by Rev. James Wilt-
uate of Princeton. The latter afterwards achieved a
provost of the University of Pennsylvania. The school
ted February 2, 1818. A school for young ladies was
t that time in connection with the academy, and R. S.
osen to conduct it. He modestly assured his patrons
teach grammar grammatically, and would also use the
A. Strong taught in the academy for almost a score of
ill remembered by the old inhabitants. The institution
s had an excellent reputation and enrolled many stu-
note quarters. Many years ago it was closed, and the
erves as a private residence. The schools of Lewes and
w controlled by a "board of public education," created
e general assembly passed March 9, 1885.

of Lewes to priority in female education has not been
hed, it has perhaps been strengthened. But that aside,
distinction that belongs to few towns in the land, viz,
history at least two centuries old.

WILMINGTON CONFERENCE ACADEMY, IN 1880.

CHAPTER VI.

WILMINGTON CONFERENCE ACADEMY.

EARLY HISTORY.

The Wilmington Conference Academy[1] is located at Dover, the capital of the State and one of the prettiest inland towns in the country. The political importance, the social status, and the green old age of the town lend it an air peculiarly wholesome for students.

The Wilmington conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church was set off from the Philadelphia conference in 1868. At a convention held in Smyrna in November, 1870, to promote "denominational interest," a committee was appointed "to take into consideration the question of ways and means, and receive propositions for the location of a first-class academy for boys." A report was rendered in 1872, in which Dover was selected for the location of the academy and the provisions of the charter were outlined. Under these preliminary provisions ministerial trustees were immediately elected by the conference, and lay trustees by subscribers to the academy among the laymen. The trustees organized by electing ex-Governor Gove Saulsbury, president, Charles H. B. Day, esq., secretary, and John W. Cullen, treasurer. The conference appointed as agent Rev. John B. Quigg.

In February, 1873, a charter was obtained, containing the following provisions:

The control of the academy should vest in seventeen ministerial trustees elected by the conference, and seventeen lay trustees elected by the stockholders. The means for purchasing the ground and for erecting the building were to be raised by a joint stock subscription to consist of 20,000 shares at $5 each, making an aggregate capital of $100,000. The academy was taken out of the category of dividend-bearing enterprises by the provision that the "trustees shall have power to appropriate out of the surplus so much as may be required for repairs or improvements of the building and for renewing or adding to the furniture or apparatus." It was further provided that the work of building should not begin until $50,000 reliable subscriptions had been secured. The corporation was the trustees elected at Laurel in March, 1872, and their successors.[2]

[1] The facts for this sketch have been drawn chiefly from the catalogues and the memory of the present principal and the writer, who has been intimately acquainted with the institution during the greater part of its history.

[2] Quoted from catalogue of 1888–89.

on being $15,000 less than the amount required by the
sed before building, the conference, as a body, at the
v. John B. Quigg, subscribed to meet the deficiency.
is sum was made a permanent endowment fund, on
terest at 6 per cent was to be paid annually from the
educational collection. The remaining $5,000 were to
ut of the "tract fund,"[1] conditioned on its return to
as soon as $5,000 above the $15,000 required should be

of the charter having been complied with, immediate
e made to build. On April 8, 1873, the trustees pur-
ander Fulton, esq., for $5,500, the 6 acres of land which
site of the academy. The contract of building the
000 was awarded, and Rev. James M. Williams elected
ing offered to assume the financial responsibility for
ing before the completion of the structure.

INCIPAL, JAMES MERRILL WILLIAMS, A. M., 1873-78.

Williams was born at Laurel, Del., on April 14, 1842.
d from Dickinson College, and then studied in Europe.
cipal of flourishing schools at Farmington and Milford,
to the academy he was filling a Methodist pulpit at

opened in September, 1873, in an old building near
vernor's avenue and Division street, and despite the
dations 44 students, all male, were catalogued during
f them being boarders.[2]
as opened to students September 7, 1874, with about
35 day scholars, 10 of whom were young ladies, in

cluded the following instructors: Rev. James M. Wil-
n P. Gordy, W. L. Gooding, A. B., Irvine M. Flinn,
n, and Addie M. Houston.
study was designed to prepare students either for col-
and consisted of a preparatory department, in which
ol branches were taught, and an academic department,
ere two groups of studies, each three years in length.
, the English and scientific course, devoted especial
ematics, natural science, and history, and required no
second, the classical course, met the needs of those
lege.
e curriculum might be as comprehensive as that of the

" was the share of the Wilmington conference in the book and
the Philadelphia conference.

best preparatory schools, another year was added in 1877. The wisdom of the change was shown by an immediate increase in the number of students from 44 to 95.

In 1875 the faculty was enlarged by the election of Robert H. Skinner to be vice-principal. The institution had barely been established when, at noon, on the 10th of March, 1876, the building accidentally caught fire and burned to the ground. Rooms were at once secured in the town and the school continued its operations, but the attendance fell to sixty-six in 1876–77. The building was restored for $20,000 by the original contractors. The cost was less than at first, for much of the brick work was uninjured by the fire and a fall in the price of building material had meanwhile taken place. By the fire the academy actually gained $8,500, for the insurance on the burned building was $30,000, while the loss upon furniture, furnaces, etc., was scarcely more than $1,500. The present value of the grounds and buildings, including the Ladies' Hall, erected in 1891, is estimated at $60,000.

The school was opened in the new building in September, 1878, under the principalship of Robert H. Skinner, who had been chosen to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Rev. James M. Williams.

THE SECOND PRINCIPAL, ROBERT H. SKINNER, A. M., 1878–84.

Robert H. Skinner was born October 23, 1837, in Queen Anne County, Md., and was educated at Fort Edward Collegiate Institute, in the State of New York. At the outbreak of the rebellion he entered Company D of the Seventy-seventh Regiment of New York Volunteers. He served with McClellan throughout the Peninsular campaign and took part in all the great battles before Richmond. At the battle of Antietam he received a severe gunshot wound which disabled him from service and is still the source of frequent suffering. When wounded, he was commanding Company H, having risen in nine months from the ranks to the position of second lieutenant. On returning to civil life he settled on a farm near Greensboro, Md. In 1868 he opened a school at Felton, and remained its principal until 1872. Three years later he again assumed control, but was immediately elected vice-principal of the Wilmington Conference Academy.

Mr. Skinner brought to the principalship, to which he was elected in 1878, a marked fitness for its duties. A clear head and an untiring industry, an appreciation of the needs of the case and the ability to satisfy those needs, enabled him speedily to place the institution upon a firm business basis. A good stock of information, a plentiful supply of common sense and tact, made him at once successful as instructor and disciplinarian. The happy faculty of reproving without stinging enabled him to minimize the breaches of discipline that were sometimes incident to coeducation.[1]

[1] The writer speaks *ex cathedra*, for he was many times justly reproved for offenses arising out of coeducation.

on was marked by a large increase in the average
. During his first year 113 students were enrolled,
, 175. He greatly increased the number of female
enting a building for one year for their accommoda-
d by building for them the next year a large house
, adjoining the campus. He devoted annually a
mmer vacation to visiting the byways and hedges of
enlisting as students farmers' sons and daughters.
come of the academy between $700 and $1,000 a
ay a handsome rent during his entire incumbency.
l facilities were provided for instruction in drawing
1880 the course was enlarged by the substitution,
nglish and scientific course," of two courses, the
" and the "Latin scientific," each three years in
"college preparatory course," embracing two years'
meet the wants of those who desired to make a
for college.

Saulsbury, president of the board of trustees, died,
Saulsbury, then United States Senator from Dela-
o succeed him and retained the position until his

of the institution amounted to $20,500. About this
arton, the devoted friend, trustee, and agent of the
bequeathed to it $2,000, on condition that the debt
00 in two years. The necessary funds were speedily

er resigned the principalship, contrary to the wishes
he academy, and retired to his farm near Dover,
es. He was succeeded by W. L. Gooding.

CIPAL, WILLIAM LAMBERT GOODING, PH. D., 1884.

Gooding was born December 22, 1851, at Galena,
from Dickinson College in 1874, and for two years
ence in the institution of which he is now princi-
ied philosophy for one year at Harvard. He re-
my in 1877 as instructor of English, mental science,
om 1878 to 1881 he studied in Germany, at Leipzig,
ttingen. At Heidelberg he attended the lectures of
Knies and Hildebrand, founded the Historical School
ay, to which the "New School" in America is so
e studied longest at Göttingen, under Lotze, the
whom Wundt had hardly as yet overshadowed.
y a serious illness from applying to a German uni-
ee of PH. D. He returned to America in 1881, and
tructor in ethics at Wesleyan University. In 1882
rincipal of the academy and two years later, upon

the retirement of Mr. Skinner, was elected principal.[1] In 1887 Dickinson College conferred upon him the honorary degree of PH. D.

Dr. Gooding is a clear thinker, a dignified and impressive speaker. A purity of motive, a philosophic, impartial, exhaustive method, and an unerring balance give him a peculiar charm for thoughtful students. Many young thinkers could be named for whom Dr. Gooding has been—to paraphrase Emerson—the star to which they have hitched their wagons.

The departure from the sectarian custom of choosing schoolmasters from the pulpit and the selection for principal of a cultured, university-bred man have imparted to the academy an intellectual tone which has placed it among the leading Methodist schools and at the same time won for it the patronage of other denominations.

The selection of Dr. Gooding has been amply vindicated by his successful management of the institution. At the outset he appropriated the best in modern pedagogics, as the following sentence from the latest catalogue attests: "The privileges of the students are contingent upon the good conduct of the school."

Every boarding school is a microcosm of the political and economic history of society. The child in its development to adult life represents the evolution of a primitive savage into a civilized being. The student of social science need not travel to tropical Africa or the village communities of India to study the stages of social development, for he may find them in the nearest boarding school. Scarcely a school exists in which one may not find the various types of institutional government, from anarchy and patriarchal despotism to imperialism and democracy, and all the phases of judicature, from the savage ordeal to the Anglo-Saxon jury. The wise schoolmaster, recognizing this truth, strives to inspire his school to achieve the highest form of self-government. When students comprehend the self-evident truth that individual lawlessness in school, as in society at large, is bound to abridge the social rights and privileges, they become guardians of the public peace, and straightway the school assumes the complexion of a university, in which the faculty are neither despots nor police, but instructors. Ideal government is attained only by that school which attains ideal democracy.[2]

FACULTY, 1891.

W. L. Gooding, PH. D., principal, German and English; John R. Todd, A. M., B. D., Greek and history; C. W. M. Black, A. B., natural science and mathematics; Elmer R. Cross, A. B., Latin; Emma Rebecca Potter, B. P., French, drawing, painting; Jane Carlyle Wilson, A. B., instrumental music and harmony; Ellen Louise Bryan, B. M.,

[1] C. S. Conwell, A. M., acted with Dr. Gooding as joint principal from 1884 until 1888, when he was called to Delaware College.

[2] See "Rudimentary Society among Boys," by John Johnson, A. B., in Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, second series, pp. 493-546 (particularly, p. 497), for a picture of student society, which will interest as well as instruct every schoolmaster. Also "The McDonogh Farm School," by Charles D. Lanier, in the Review of Reviews for May, 1892.

sistant in instrumental music; Mrs. W. L. Good-

COURSES OF STUDY.

dy extend over a period of three years, to which there
urses for young or deficient pupils, in which the cle-
anches are studied. The following is a synopsis:
-*Scientific course.*—Algebra, rhetoric, arithmetic,
, physiology or bookkeeping, Latin or German, or
course.—Algebra, rhetoric, composition, Cæsar,
osition, Greek grammar and reader.
-*Scientific course.*—Geometry, natural philosophy,
nglish literature, political economy, Latin or Ger-
lassical course.—Geometry, English history, English
d Latin composition, Anabasis, Homer.
-*Scientific course.*—Logic or methods of teaching,
history, American literature, United States history
commercial law, elocution, Greek and Roman his-
advanced algebra, Latin or German, or French.
ivy, Horace, Homer, Thucydides, general history,
y (advanced course), Greek and Roman history, Ger-
in composition.
e are exercises in declamation, composition, and
tudent is required to pursue at least four studies
is encouraged to add thereto as many as his time,
ion may justify. The advantage of this definite
students may finish the course at any season of
s, however, are given only in June.
ellent course of private reading is required of all

es.—Robinson Crusoe (De Foe), Arabian Nights,
ry of America (Butterworth), Wonder Stories (Hans
), Tales of Shakespeare (Lamb).
njamin Franklin (autobiography), Twice-Told Tales
s Standish, Evangeline (Longfellow), Tale of Two
he Spy (Cooper).
acebridge Hall (Irving), David Copperfield (Dick-
kefield (Goldsmith), Cotter's Saturday Night, Tam
rns), Ivanhoe (Scott).
lius Cæsar and As You Like It (Shakespeare), Mar-
ship of Miles Standish (Longfellow), Sir Roger de
pectator), Second Essay on the Earl of Chatham
unker Hill Oration (Webster), Alhambra (Irving),
cenes from Clerical Life (George Eliot), House of
Hawthorne).
s to make the academy a model secondary school and
becoming a secondary college. Therefore, in 1884,

WILMINGTON CONFERENCE ACADEMY, IN 1892.

he abolished the collegiate feature of salutatory and valedictory at graduation and established instead the following plan: Members of the graduating class whose average during the course is above 95 are awarded first honors; those between 90 and 95, second honors, and those below 90 are graduated without honors. Two years later he abolished the unsatisfactory system of marking students on a scale from 1 to 100, and their work is now marked, according to its quality, "excellent," "good," "tolerable," and "unsatisfactory." The senior class is required during the last term to attend a final examination in grammar, geography, United States history, and arithmetic, and a failure to pass, subjects to a requisition which, until made up, debars graduation. The scientific apparatus, although not elaborate, suffices for simple experiments in elementary physics and chemistry. The class of 1884 presented to the academy the mineralogical cabinet of F. A. Williams, esq., of Denver, Colo., which enhances the interest in geological study. Only one attempt has been made in journalism. In the early history of the school The Wilmington Conference Academy Reporter was for a time published monthly, but soon died a natural death. The charge for tuition, board, room, fuel, light, laundry work, etc., is $200 per annum, but day students are charged a tuition fee of $45.

LITERARY SOCIETIES AND LIBRARIES.

In 1875 three literary societies were organized, the Scott, the Buoy, and the Viola. The first two admitted only males, the third, females. Three years later the Buoy and Viola were abandoned; but the Scott, which took its name from Levi Scott, bishop in the Methodist Episcopal Church, survives to this day. Both sexes are admitted, and for a time they held joint meetings every Saturday evening in Academy hall. About 1881 the Scott society was divided into two sections, one for males, meeting weekly in Academy hall, the other for females, meeting at the same time in the Ladies' Building. Joint public meetings are held monthly. The attendance of boarding students is required. Only students and ex-students are eligible to membership. Some of the leading lawyers and preachers of the peninsula received forensic training in this society.

The Scott society established a library for the use of its members in 1878. The libraries of the Browning and the Iris and Minerva Literary societies of the Wesleyan Female College of Wilmington were donated to the Scott library on the closure of that institution. The Scott library, which now consists of more than 1,600 carefully chosen volumes, is also the State repository of public documents and receives regularly the publications of the Government.

COEDUCATION.

The opponents of coeducation are confronted by the eternal problem of showing cause for the subversion of a natural order and the substitution of a monastic scheme, which modern thought is fast relegating to

age of ecclesiastical rule. Scarcely a man can be the growth of the academy has been impeded by sexes. The adoption of the principle was followed in the number of students that a building had to commodation of the girls. This building, which was n Robert H. Skinner, has of late years proved too , and since the first draft of this sketch was made been erected directly south of the original building it on the first and second floors.[1] Here is an excel- g women seeking physical, mental, and social de-

of students in attendance each year, 1873–1892.

878–'79	113	1883–'84	175	1888–'89	161
879–'80	129	1884–'85	181	1889–'90	138
880–'81	129	1885–'86	178	1890–'91	125
881–'82	119	1886–'87	159	1891–'92	175
882–'83	146	1887–'88	156		
tendance				1873–'92	128+

e table that the progress of the academy has been ginning with an average yearly attendance of 70+ lship of Rev. J. M. Williams, it increased during of R. H. Skinner to 135+, and under Dr. W. L. The institution has graduated to 1892, inclusive, erage of more than 8 yearly.

CONCLUSION.

institution whose progress has been rapid and con- arrated. The academy has never experienced a revocation of the charter of the Wesleyan Female ton, has been the educational center of Peninsular e peninsula and the town of Dover, it has met a lt want. The Wilmington Conference has contrib- , but has received in return fourfold in the better nany preachers have received for their profession s to educate their children at small cost. The small s, some of whom have distinguished themselves as d journalists, as compared with the total number of ce, is largely due to the high standard of scholarship. ssume the functions of a college have been resisted o day offers to the public excellent academic advan- ing but a liberal endowment from some wealthy and to attain the success to which its merits entitle it.

1 up for a gymnasium, and physical culture is now a part of

CHAPTER VII.

NEWARK ACADEMY.

ORIGIN: THE NEW LONDON ACADEMY.

Newark Academy, established at Newark, Del., in 1767, is one of the oldest secondary schools in the land. Its origin may be traced to the year 1738, when the Presbytery of Lewes sent a memorial to the Synod of Philadelphia, in which they used the following language:

That this part of the world, where God has ordered our lot, labours under a grievous disadvantage for want of the opportunities of universities and professors skilled in the several branches of useful learning, and that many students from Europe are especially cramped in prosecuting their studies, their parents removing to these colonies before they have an opportunity of attending the college, after having spent some years at the grammar school; and that many persons born in the country grow under the same pressure, whose circumstances are not able to support them to spend a course of years in the European or New England colleges, which discourages much and must be a detriment to our church; for we know that natural parts, however great and promising, for want of being well improved, must be marred of their usefulness, and can not be so extensively serviceable to the public, and that want of due pains and care paves the way for ignorance, and this for a formidable train of sad consequences. To prevent this evil it is humbly proposed as a remedy, that every student who has not studied with approbation, passing the usual courses in some of the New England or European colleges, approved by public authority, shall, before he be encouraged by any Presbytery for the sacred work of the ministry, apply himself to this Synod, and that they appoint a committee of their members yearly, whom they know to be well skilled in the several branches of philosophy, and divinity, and the languages, to examine such students in this place, and, finding them well accomplished in those several parts of learning, shall allow them a public testimony from the Synod, which, till better provision be made, will in some measure answer the design of taking a degree in the college.[1]

This petition was kindly received and the synod ordered "that there be two standing committees to act in the above affair for this year, one to the northward and the other to the southward of Philadelphia." Of the latter committee Francis Alison was a member. On the 5th of November, 1738, the synod approved the committee's recommendation for the erection of a school, and two members of the synod were requested

[1] Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography, vol. VIII, 45 *et seq.* Art. on Matthew Wilson. Records of Presbyterian Church in U. S., 139 et seq.

o solicit aid. The request not having been com-
ittee was appointed five years later to solicit money
from the Church of Scotland. They, however, were
r the mother church for twelve years contributed
.

of New Castle, Philadelphia, and Donegal, by pri-
t at the Great Valley, November 16, 1743, to con-
y of using speedy endeavors to educate youth for
ncies." They agreed to open a school, and the synod
the following spring. The plan was to give free
in the languages, philosophy, and divinity. The
pported for a time by yearly congregational collec-
son was chosen master at a salary of £20 a year, and
his usher, who was to receive £15. Eleven minis-
l trustees to visit the school, to inspect the master's
t-books, examine the scholars, disburse the funds,
superintendence over the school. No presbytery
prove" any scholar who did not produce a joint testi-
ustees and the synod's committee. The school was
ply the forerunner of a college. In 1746 the synod
ees of Yale to receive their scholars at such stages
warranted, and to admit them after one year's resi-
Several ministers and gentlemen helped them to
library. A favorable response was received from
he pupils appear to have availed themselves of the

Church builded better than it knew when it estab-
o prepare men for the pulpit; for it set in motion an
that gave Delaware a college.

CIS ALISON AND HIS FAMOUS PUPILS.

705–1779) was a native of Ireland. He studied at
lasgow and came to America as a probationer about
uel D. Dickinson, on Benjamin Franklin's recom-
ed him to tutor his famous son.[3] In 1737 he was
the Presbyterian church at New London, Pa. In
d a private school in 1743, which the Presbyterian

terian Church, 147, 169, 174, 185–192, 227. Webster's History
urch in America, 256.

22–1808), Alison's pupil, was the author of the resolutions of
onstrating against the measures of Great Britain. He refused
of Independence because he considered it untimely and unwise.
upon his share in making the Articles of Confederation and
of the Farmers' Letters. He was successively president of
ania (1781–85). He was influential in founding and liberally
llege. (Old South Leaflets, General Series, No. 2.)

Church took under its care the following year. Professor Hutcheson, of Glasgow, had proposed to Alison the establishment of a seminary; and in 1746 a correspondence was opened, of which we do not know the result. In 1748 the synod raised his salary to £40 and his assistant's to £20, intending to make up the sums by collections and by "sessing" each scholar 20 shillings, and to defray deficiencies out of the yearly interest of the fund. The synod, next year, declined to give him leave to remove to Philadelphia, and promised him £30, reserving the right to exempt as many scholars from tuition fees as they pleased, and giving him permission to charge the rest as he desired. But this was not satisfactory, and, in 1752, without consulting the synod, he removed to Philadelphia, as master of the grammar school. Three years later this school was erected into a college, which finally became the University of Pennsylvania, and Francis Alison was elected vice-provost and professor of moral philosophy. Nassau Hall conferred upon him, in 1756, the degree of A. M., and two years later he received D. D. from Glasgow. He was the first Presbyterian minister in America to receive D. D. from a foreign university.

Francis Alison opposed the "throwing off of the proprietary government" with such vigor that Richard Penn gave him as a reward the splendid tract of 1,000 acres at the confluence of the Bald Eagle with the West Branch of the Susquehanna. Although his family could ill afford it, he set free his slaves by will: "The good man followed the dictates of his conscience, leaving his widow to Providence." He died November 28, 1779.

President Stiles, of Yale, called him "the greatest classical scholar in America, especially in Greek," and "in ethics, history, and general reading a great literary character." Bishop White, one of his pupils, speaks of him as a man of "real and rational piety, with a proneness to anger, which was forgotten in his placableness and affability." Rev. Edward D. Neill remarks, in his brochure on Matthew Wilson: "As a Scotch-Irish Presbyterian, Alison was imbued with the idea that the school was as necessary to the church as the anvil to the blacksmith, and that Christianity must advance by employing keen-eyed science as her servant. He was among the first to agitate for a college in Pennsylvania and Delaware."[1]

Special interest attaches to Dr. Alison because the following famous men were once his pupils: Col. John Bayard, Delegate to Congress, 1785–87; Dr. John Cochrane, director-general of hospitals; Ebenezer Hazard, United States Postmaster-General, 1782–89; John Dickinson, a sketch of whom is given above; John Henry, United States Senator, 1789–97, governor of Maryland; James Latta, D. D., a noted Presbyterian clergyman; Col. Alexander Martin, a prominent participant in the battle of Germantown, governor of North Carolina, United States

[1] Nevin's Encyclopædia of the Presbyterian Church in United States, article on Alison. Webster, 256, 257, 440–443. Penna. Magazine of Hist., VIII, 45 *et seq.*

r. John Ewing, provost of the University of Penn-
cKean, signer of the Declaration of Independence,
ress 1781, governor of Pennsylvania 1799–1808;
, who accompanied Gen. Forbes on the expedition
a colonel of Pennsylvania troops in the war for
as the grandfather of Edward McPherson, formerly
States House of Representatives; George Read, Del-
signer of the Declaration of Independence, United
Delaware 1789–1793; Dr. Benjamin Rush, Delegate
of the Declaration of Independence, and eminent as
ilosopher; Jacob Rush, brother of Benjamin, presi-
of common pleas of Philadelphia County; James
he Declaration of Independence; W. M. Tennent,
terian clergyman; Charles Thomson, secretary of
ongress and translator of the Septuagint; James
blind preacher described by Wirt; Matthew Wil-
.

r. Alison instructed no less than four governors,
, and four signers of the Declaration of Independ-
w schoolmasters in the United States ever taught a
upils[1] who afterwards acquired such distinguished

THE REMOVAL TO NEWARK.

ceeded in 1752 by the Rev. Alexander McDowell,
and, whence he came with his parents to Virginia,
sician, and theologian. He was at this time pastor
hite Clay Creek churches, and for the sake of con-
he school first to Elkton, Md., and then to Newark,
ave him £20 a year and an assistant. In 1754 he
burden, but continued, "from a sense of the public
, mathematics, and natural and moral philosophy.
formerly allowed him was extended to his assistant,

quiet and pretty town of 1,300 inhabitants, scattered
the single street, so long that a Newark boy in a

, Vol. viii, 46, Art. on Matthew Wilson.

owell died January 12, 1782. (Webster, 257, Penn. Mag. Hist.,
thew Wilson.) Matthew Wilson, D. D., of Lewes, was a dis-
lian, physician, educator, and divine during the Revolutionary
He was born in Pennsylvania in 1731, studied in Dr. Alison's
rdained a minister in the Presbyterian Church. In 1756, imme-
's defeat, he visited the frontier settlements near Winchester,
t contributor to current literature, Bradford's Pennsylvania
can Magazine. He was early such an earnest patriot that a
of February, 1769, just after the stamp-act discussion, was
Wilson, the future father of a president of Delaware College.
sylvania conferred upon Matthew Wilson the degree of D. D.
h 31, 1790.

school composition once remarked: "Newark has for the last fifty years been increasing at both ends, and, should this increase continue, owing to the rotundity of the earth the two ends will in the course of a few thousand years meet. Thus it will form a belt around the world, a town 25,000 miles in length, which, like a woman's tongue, will have no end."

The inhabitants proudly trace its settlement back more than two centuries to a village founded by English, Welsh, and Scotch emigrants, who gave to their new home a name suggestive of the old country. Newark, or New Ark, was doubtless named for the old town of which Walter Scott sings:

> Where New Ark's stately tower
> Looks out from Yarrow's birchen bower.

George II, at the request of James McMechan and other villagers, granted Newark, in 1758, a charter, preserved to this day and for the most part legible. In 1767, when Rev. Alexander McDowell removed his school hither, it was, according to a paper of that day, "a suitable and healthy village, not too rich or luxurious, where real learning might be obtained."[1]

NEWARK ACADEMY BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

Thomas and Richard Penn granted the Academy a charter in 1769. Four years later Dr. John Ewing[2] and Dr. Hugh Williamson[3] were sent to England and Scotland to secure funds for the school. Dr. Ewing had frequent interviews with Lord North and Dr. Johnson. The latter affirmed that the Americans were as ignorant as they were

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[1] Newark, Del., Past and Present.

[2] John Ewing (1732–1802) graduated at Princeton in 1754 and served as tutor there in 1756. He was licensed to preach by the presbytery of New Castle, and while employed in instructing the philosophical classes in the College of Philadelphia, during the absence of its provost, in 1759, he was called to the First Presbyterian Church of that city. In conjunction with his pastoral work, he held the office of provost of the University of Pennsylvania from 1779 till his death. The University of Edinburgh gave him the degree of D. D. in 1773. He was a thorough mathematician and scientist and assisted Rittenhouse in surveying the boundaries of several States. He was vice-president of the American Philosophical Society and made several contributions to its "Transactions." (Appleton's Cyclopædia of Am. Biog., Art. on Ewing.)

[3] Hugh Williamson (1735–1819), a native of Pennsylvania, was educated at the College of Philadelphia. He was intended for the clerical profession, but relinquished it, first for mathematics and then for medicine. He obtained his M. D. at Leyden and returned to Philadelphia to practice medicine. He was one of the committee appointed by the American Philosophical Society, in 1769, to observe the transit of Venus over the solar disk. He served in the Revolution as head of the medical staff from North Carolina and represented that State in Congress from 1782 to 1785, in 1787–'88, and from 1789 to 1793. In the convention which framed the Federal Constitution he led the opposition to the appointment of a Vice-President of the United States. "Such an officer as a Vice-President is not wanted," he said. Among his works are "The History of North Carolina" (1812) and "Observations on the Climate of America." (See Beeton's Dictionary of Universal Biography and Wheeler's Reminiscences of North Carolina, p. 122.)

d: "You never read. You have no books there."
s the instant reply, "we have read the 'Rambler.'"
quite successful and they returned to America in
of the money thus secured and through the generous
Penns and others a substantial building was erected
he present endowment was formed. The academy
year from Morgan Edwards a lot of land on Main
he property of Thomas Read and containing 7 acres
This land was sold in 1777 for £259 10*s.* to Alexan-

TIONARY AND POST-REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD.

nd of the Revolution was transferred to the Brandy-
the school was abandoned. The building was then
hoe factory for supplying the Continental army with
says that at some period during the war shots were
ding at British troops and that the redcoats in re-
l cannon balls crashing through the house. The fact
house, which stood near the academy until it was
ears ago, bore marks of bullets probably made at this
ility to the tradition. Exactly how long the academy
e have not discovered, but the popular impression
during the entire revolutionary period is certainly

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ord, England, gave to the Pennsylvania Magazine of History
V, pp. 412 *et seq.*) the diary of Capt. John Montresor, a chief of
army and a participant in the campaign of the Brandywine,
hronicled in his diary. It proves that the whole British army
rk on the way to Chadd's Ford, where the battle was fought.
s will prove interesting reading in this connection:
* * We learn that Gen. Sullivan, with 1,000 men, but no can-

whole moved two days before daylight. A remarkable bore-
ong ground; marched this day about 12 miles to headquarters.
y. But three or four shots fired during the march. A great
lected. At a quarter past nine three alarm guns were fired from
ctured to be at Newport, one minute between each. * * *
en this morning marching through Newark; the weather was
amped this day at Niblas' house, which is from Aiken's tav-
und Iron Hill by way of Newark, and so into the road from
r in the way to New Garden. Heard the rebel morning gun."
John R. Hill was living at that time on a hill on the north side
and his recollection of the occasion as related by his son and
, Past and Present" (22, 23), attests, the correctness of Capt.
e relates that the British army began its march through New-
nd that there continued during the whole day an unbroken
ntry, artillery, baggage wagons, and ordnance wagons.
hat Gen. Washington passed a night at the old tavern called
hen reconnoitering in the neighborhood about the time that
River to march to Philadelphia.
t and Present, 35. Records of Newark Academy.

The proceedings of the board of trustees, June 22, 1785, show that "an account was exhibited by Mr. John Bratton, who had been a teacher in the academy in 1776 and 1777," and that a balance of £29 11*s* 6*d*, due him for services rendered, was allowed upon the certification of Mr. Robert Davidson, rector of the institution during that period. Governor Thomas McKean, in a letter to Gen. Washington, dated Newark, Del., October 8, 1777, writes: "On my arrival I found that all the records and public papers of the county of New Castle, and every shilling of the public money, together with the fund belonging to the trustees of the Newark Academy, etc., had been captured at Wilmington." We may therefore conclude that the academy was open during the Revolution, with the exception of two or three years, probably 1777 to 1780, when it was used as a shoe manufactory.

October 16, 1783, the board passed the following resolution:

The trustees, taking into consideration the meritorious conduct of Mr. William Thompson, the present teacher of the scholars in their academy, in undertaking that employment for near three years past, under many discouragements, and the small compensation he has had for his services, have unanimously agreed to allow him the sum of £50 as a gratuity on that account, to be paid as soon as the same can be collected by the treasurer.

Unfortunately the minutes of the trustees during and previous to the Revolutionary War were lost, so that it was necessary to procure a new minutes book when the academy reopened in 1783. The following is the first entry made therein:[1]

WILMINGTON, *5 June, 1783.*

In consequence of previous notice the Trustees of the Academy of Newark met at this place:

Present: Rev. Dr. John Ewing, Rev. William McKennan, Rev. Thomas Read, Mr. John McKinley, General Sam'l Patterson, Mr. James Mease, Mr. John Thompson.

Absent: Rev. Mat. Wilson, Rev. Joseph Montgomery, Mr. Chas. Thompson, Hon. Thos. McKean, Hon John Evans.

* * * * * * *

Dr. Ewing laid before the board an account of the money belonging to the fund in his hands, which is as follows:

	£.	s.	d.
Continental Certificates, for $1,200, dated March 26, 1777	450	0	0
Continental Certificates for $2,000, dated 8th November, 1779, equal in specie	31	4	2
Continental Certificates for $3,500, of different dates, equal in specie to.	36	10	1½
Dr. Rush's bond, £200 principal, about ten years interest, about	300	0	0
Dr. Warren's bond, £113 principal, with interest	200	0	0
Dr. Francis Alison's bond, £50 principal, with interest	80	0	0
Legacy from Samuel Scott's estate (supposed)	25	0	0
Legacy from James Gardner's estate (supposed)	100	0	0
Due in part of a house sold for £1,000 Continental money, September, 1779, equal to	52	0	0
	1,275	4	3½

[1] The minutes of the trustees from 1783 to 1889 were rendered accessible through the kindness of Mr. James Hossinger; and the above sketch is based upon the facts which they furnished.

certificates be delivered to the treasurer, Gen. Patterson.
e academy having been interrupted some years by the war, the
to carry it on as extensively as their circumstances will admit,
he present, agree to employ in the capacity of their principal
m Thompson, till the next meeting. His Excellency N. Van
ars, James Latta and John McCreary, the Hon. James Latimer,
antwell were unanimously elected trustees, and Gen. Patterson
aint them with the same. * * * Dr. Ewing is appointed to
n the Pennsylvania newspapers that the Newark Academy is
carried on as formerly.

Rush[2] and others contributed freely and increased the
institution, as the minutes indicate.

, the report of the treasurer showed the considerable
0.40 in the treasury and some outstanding notes and
losses incurred during the war. Mr. William Thomp-
principalship of the academy until 1794, when it
ands of a Mr. Johnston, under whose direction it was
ous. From 1796 to 1799 it was closed. The next prin-
is Hindman, failed to revive the institution and was
. New life was aroused by the election to the princi-
Andrew K. Russell in 1811. To him belongs the credit
ademy upon a solid foundation, by improving the gov-
the grade of instruction, and increasing the number of
as during his administration that the project for organ-
rst assumed definite shape.

HE UNION WITH DELAWARE COLLEGE.

k Academy was merged into Newark College (Dela-
r 1843) and January 15, 1847, the trustees of the acad-
onveyed the buildings and grounds to the trustees of

Delaware State, under the constitution of September 20, 1776,
83, to October 27, 1786.

(1745-1813) was a native of Pennsylvania. He was graduated
760, and from the medical department of the University of Edin-
returned to America the next year, and was elected professor of
hiladelphia Medical College. He was elected to Congress in
Declaration of Independence. As surgeon-general, and later
he attended the wounded in the battles of 1777, and during
e four severe comments on the Articles of Confederation. He
essorial chair in 1778, and held it for twenty-nine years. He was
son College and the Philadelphia Dispensary, and was largely
ablishment of the college of physicians and public schools. He
convention that ratified the Constitution in 1787, and the conven-
tate constitution. He filled various chairs in the Philadelphia
d rendered excellent service during the yellow-fever epidemic of
his death he was treasurer of the United States Mint. He was
s educational and scientific societies, and gave a great impulse
this country. Yale gave him the degree of LL. D. in 1812. He
medical and philosophical treatises and edited several medical
s Encyclopedia.)

the college. The principal of the academy was admitted to be a member of the college faculty, and until 1869 the histories of the two institutions were interwoven with each other.

THE STATUS IN 1843.

The condition of Newark Academy in 1843 appears to have been as follows:

[1] The faculty included William S. Graham, A. M., principal and teacher of languages; William W. Ferris, A. M., teacher of mathematics; L. W. Mason, teacher of English and music; James S. Bell, M. D., teacher of modern languages; William Silver, writing master.

There were 82 pupils enrolled in 1842–43. In 1841 a new building was erected and in 1842 another, "giving"—I quote from the catalogue—"to Newark Academy facilities for private study and comfortable accommodation of students fully equal to those afforded by many of our colleges." "The course of instruction includes the various branches of a substantial education as well as the usual preparation for college." It was stated that all the necessary expenses of the academical year, to those not studying modern languages, did not exceed $130; to candidates for the ministry the limit of necessary expenses was $100. A tuition fee of $20 per annum was required from those who boarded out of the academy.

There was at this time a school for girls, known as the Newark Female Seminary, under the direction of Thomas D. Ball, A. M.

THE SEPARATION FROM DELAWARE COLLEGE.

On May 4, 1869, the trustees of Delaware College deeded back to the trustees of Newark Academy the property conveyed to them in 1847, and by virtue of the power conferred by an act[2] of the General Assembly, passed at Dover, January 27, 1835, the only surviving trustees of the old board, Willard Hall and William T. Read, in the same year elected the following gentlemen trustees: John W. Evans, Rathmel Wilson, James H. Ray, George G. Kerr, Walter E. Turner, William Reynolds, Edward R. Wilson, David J. Murphy, George G. Evans, and Charles W. Blandy.

E. D. Porter was elected principal of the institution and conducted it for several years with varying success, but with a fair number of students during the most of the period.

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[1] Catalogue of 1843.

[2] By the provisions of this act the trustees were empowered to sell the building and land and to turn the money derived therefrom over to the "Trustees of Newark College," provided that the principal and the property remained intact. The trustees were given the power to resume their functions and were required to reinstate the academy whenever the trustees of the college ceased to maintain an academic department in the college.

annah Chamberlain became principal and girls were
s. She was an earnest and conscientious teacher.
Polk succeeded Miss Chamberlain in 1877 and upon
his term of office in 1885 placed the school into the
N. Raub, PH. D.

PRINCIPALSHIP OF ALBERT N. RAUB.

ght to his new position not only a natural fitness for
h academic work, but also a ripe experience in the
f Pennsylvania. He at once gave to it a normal-
aming the institution the "Academy of Newark and
School" and providing courses for the especial ben-
ged or desiring to engage in public-school teaching

tatement compiled from the catalogue of 1889 shows
tion of the school:
study are offered, the literary and the normal, each
two years for completion. In the first course stu-
d for the sophomore year, scientific or Latin-scientific
, while the graduates of the normal course complete
ed for a first-grade public-school certificate in Dela-
dition of school management, methods of teaching,
, bookkeeping, vocal music, physiology, civil govern-
d English classics. Those who desire may continue
he advanced course, which prepares students for the
tific or Latin-scientific course of college.
nsists of Albert N. Raub, A. M., PH. D., principal,
hology, and English; J. Harvey Whiteman, M. S.,
ural science, and languages; M. L. Horn, A. M., math-
cience, and languages; Gertrude M. Bridgman, B. E.,
ent and English; Lucy E. Corson, M. E., English;
ic; Martha Chamberlain, painting, drawing, crayon.

pupils in attendance in 1888–89, of whom 64 were
ales. Some of these were from Maryland and Penn-
is a primary department and students of any age
y scholars are charged $1 a week and boarding stu-
ch includes tuition, board, room, heat, and light.
eir own school materials and text-books, excepting
, arithmetic, and spelling, which are free.

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life in the history of Delaware College. Information has been
nation of Dr. Raub and the election, in the summer of 1890, of
erintendent of public schools in Kent County, to succeed him.
unds and buildings is estimated at $15,000. See Report of the
ation for 1888–89, Vol. II, 1055.

LIST OF PRINCIPALS.

The following is a list (complete, it is believed) of the principals from the opening of the school in New London in 1741 until the present time: Francis Alison, D. D., Rev. Alexander McDowell, Mr. William Thompson, Mr. Johnstone, Rev. John Waugh, Rev. Francis Hindman, Rev. A. K. Russell, Mr. Thomas Madden, Mr. N. Z. Graves, Prof. William S. F. Graham, Mr. W. W. Ferris, Rev. Matthew Meigs, Mr. J. W. Weston, Rev. Whitman Peck, Prof. E. D. Porter, Miss Hannah Chamberlain, Joseph L. Polk, Albert N. Raub, PH. D., and L. Irving Handy.

PUPILS WHO BECAME FAMOUS.

More than five thousand boys, many of whom won national reputations, have been students at Newark Academy. Among them were the following:

Dr. David Ramsey, the historian; Dr. Hugh Williamson, already described in this chapter; Capt. Robert Kirkwood, the Revolutionary hero of Delaware; George Duffield, D. D., associate chaplain of Congress with Bishop White; Alexander McWhorter, D. D., an eminent Presbyterian clergyman; Edward Miller, M. D., brother of Rev. Dr. Samuel Miller, an eminent physician and professor of practice of physics in the University of New York; Thomas Clayton, the first chief justice of Delaware, and the successor of John M. Clayton in the United States Senate (1837–'48); Dr. Allen McLane, a prominent physician, and the brother of Hon. Louis McLane; David Davis, acting Vice-President of the United States during the Arthur administration; Dr. D. Hayes Agnew, the great surgeon; George Alfred Townsend, the novelist and well-known "Gath" of journalism; Andrew C. Gray, esq., one of the ablest lawyers of his day, and father of George Gray, United States Senator from Delaware at the present time; John W. Houston, ex-member of Congress, associate judge of the State of Delaware, and compiler of the well known "Houston's Reports."

Almost every old family on the Peninsula has at some time patronized the academy, and occasionally three successive generations from the same family appear in the catalogues. Bayard, Clayton, Rodney, McKean, Harrington, McLane, Read, Higgins, Gray, Spruance, Black, Causey, Pearce, Groome, Constable, Grayson, Purnell, Wooten, Whiteley—all these well-known family names are enrolled on the scroll of this venerable institution.[1]

[1] Newark, Delaware, Past and Present, 39.

CHAPTER VIII.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

THE COLLEGE OF WILMINGTON.

of Wilmington, established about 1765, was remod-
rtered as the "College of Wilmington." The State,
uthorized a lottery to raise $10,000 for its use. It
wever, that the college was ever fully organized or
leted the course. The building was torn down in

ST. MARY'S COLLEGE.

e was established in Wilmington by Rev. Patrick
n Catholic Church. Father Reilly was a man of
inments and excellent character, and whatever suc-
ieved was largely due to his intelligent administra-
s.[3] In 1841 he opened a school for boys, which was
erted into a college by a charter from the legislature
ving upon it full power to confer scholastic degrees.
whose picture appears on the next page, was at
ce of the small one previously used, and the college
students.
es (in 1850) were William McCaulley, of Wilming-
be, of New Orleans; Edward Ridgely, of Dover, and

ctors in 1860 was as follows: Rev. P. Reilly, presi-
of ancient languages; Rev. M. Healy, professor of
ematics; E. Paulin, A. M., professor of French and
M. Reilly, professor of drawing; Angelo F. Dos
music; James H. Leddy, James McCabe, Bernard
Sullivan, assistant instructors in English and math-

r of students enrolled in 1859–'60 was 93. These
ong States and countries as follows: Delaware, 41;

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ademy of Wilmington, p. 45; Laws of Delaware, IV, 465.
rad, esq., to the writer.

ST. MARY'S COLLEGE

Pennsylvania, 16; New Jersey, 12; Georgia, 6; South Carolina, 4; Cuba, 4; Costa Rica, 3; New York, 3; Virginia, 2; Maryland, 1; Mississippi, 1.

Less stress was laid upon Latin and Greek than upon the sciences and courses preparatory to a commercial life. The catalogue of 1860 announces that "unless at the request of parents and guardians they (Latin and Greek) are not insisted upon generally. Particular and especial care is taken to impart a sound English education, and all means are employed to qualify students as thoroughly and in as short time as possible for entering the counting house and undertaking the usual pursuits of a mercantile life. Mathematics, bookkeeping, English literature, elocution, penmanship, geography and history, and the modern languages are always made the particular objects of constant and careful attention." Music was so popular that a college band was organized.

Students were forbidden to leave the collegiate bounds unaccompanied by one of the prefects. But opportunity for "healthful relaxation and amusement" was afforded by a convenient playground, two ball alleys, two ten-pin alleys, a field for cricket, shinny, and foot ball, and a gymnasium, "with all the latest, most interesting, and safest improvements." The close proximity to the famous Brandywine afforded the students "bathing in summer, skating in winter, and pleasant walking at all seasons." The use of tobacco was prohibited. "No inveterate smoker or tobacco-chewer will be permitted to enter the college as a student." The charge for board and room in the college dormitory, tuition, etc., was $150 per annum. The scholastic year began about September 1 and closed about the last of June.

Students were encouraged to study by a lavish distribution of prizes. In 1860 premiums were distributed for excellence in rhetoric, drawing, French, German, Spanish, Latin, Greek, natural philosophy, geometry, algebra, history, Christian doctrine, music, and the primary studies.

The Civil War cut off southern patronage so that there were in 1868 but 40 students in attendance.[1] The same year the college was closed, the building was sold to a syndicate, and in 1875 demolished. Thus ends the history of the first and only Roman Catholic college in Delaware.

WESLEYAN FEMALE COLLEGE.[2]

The Wesleyan Female College, one of the earliest institutions in the land for the higher education of women, was established in 1837. Rev. Solomon Prettyman, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, had for several years been conducting at Seaford a flourishing female seminary, which, in 1837, he was induced to remove to Wilmington. The Wesleyan Female Seminary was opened on Market street with thirty pupils in

[1] Barnard's Journal of Education, Vol. XVIII, 1869, p. 305.

[2] The writer is indebted to Miss Ruthanna Day, Dover, Del., a graduate of the college, for many of the facts contained in this sketch.

838 it was removed to a larger building at Ninth and
d in the following year a large building, especially
purposes, was erected on French street above Sixth.
ool was chartered under the name of the Wesleyan
Institute and started in its new quarters with 125
lents published the Female Student and Young
from 1844 to 1847. During the next three years the
rosper, and in 1851 the control passed from the Rev.
n into the hands of a board of trustees, representing
scopal Church. January 17, 1855, a new charter was
to the Wesleyan Female College the power to con-
graduates and securing to the Philadelphia conference
Episcopal Church a representation of six members in
ees. The college then took a new lease of life, and
the year 257 students were enrolled. The majority
n Delaware and Maryland, but a large number also
lvania, Virginia, District of Columbia, and more dis-
courses of study were provided, the English and the
ending over a period of three years, and divided into
homore, junior, and senior. The degree of B. A. was
ose who completed both courses, while those who com-
sh course alone received the degree of mistress of
.

erected on Sixth street under the direction of Wil-
f the trustees, at a cost of $13,000. The college was
r many years, but about eighteen years ago began to
patronage. In 1882 the property was purchased by
d a new charter was obtained under the name of the
. An effort was made to resuscitate it free from sec-
der the presidency of the Rev. John Wilson, but in
s were finally closed in 1885. The building is now

s a complete list of the presidents: Rev. Solomon
, 1837-1851; T. E. Sudler, A. M., 1851-1852; Rev.
. D., 1852-1857; Rev. Lafayette C. Loomis, A. M., M.
v. John Wilson, A. M., 1858-1878; Rev. James M.
878-1882; Rev. John Wilson, A. M., 1882-1885.
s.—Three literary societies were in operation during
riod of the history of the institution; the I. R. I. S.
the Minerva in 1868, and the Browning in 1872. All
ant, well-furnished rooms, and libraries, and were a
esting feature of the college life.
ist of alumnæ is both long and honorable. They are
globe. Many of them have done excellent work as
Misses Waugh, the one a graduate of 1855, the
among the early missionaries to China and estab-
s' school—Waugh Seminary—at Foochow, China.

WILMINGTON COMMERCIAL COLLEGE.

The only business college in the State was opened by the present principal, H. S. Goldey, in 1887, since which time it has grown rapidly. In 1888–89, 207 students were enrolled. Mr. Goldey is an experienced accountant and has long been familiar with the work. He is assisted by nine instructors. The college is favorably situated in Institute building, northwest corner Eighth and Market streets, Wilmington. The full commercial course embraces bookkeeping, business forms, business customs, business practice, banking, expert accounting, correspondence, commercial law, business ethics, political economy, business penmanship, lettering and box-marking, business arithmetic, practical grammar, rapid calculations, practical spelling, and commercial terms. In addition special courses are offered in phonography and typewriting.

The instruction is mainly individual and the time required to complete the course depends therefore upon the student. "The shortest time yet made in completing the full course was six months." The college is open from the 1st of September until the last of June and furnishes a day session of ten months and an evening session of six months. For the full course of ten months a tuition fee of $80 is required, but students who attend a shorter period are charged pro rata. The school has already won a good name in the State.

CHAPTER IX.

DELAWARE COLLEGE.

UND OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN DELAWARE.

of higher education in Delaware is deeply tinted
m. The mind reverts to that meeting of the Lewes
at which the memorial to the Philadelphia synod
hen it leaves the State to seek at New London, Pa.,
famous school of Francis Alison, the staunch Scotch-
to whom school seemed as necessary to the church
e blacksmith. Thence it follows the current of
n its slow and sinuous winding towards Newark,
academic banks, it seeks a broader channel in Dela-

e influence of Dr. Alison was supplemented and en-
atesmen of that day who could not endure that their
en the first to adopt the Constitution, and among the
t of self-government, should lag behind her sisters in
the chief ornament and the safeguard of a nation—
atesmen of Delaware during the early part of the
re usually men of scholarly instincts, many of them
attainments, and graduates of Yale, Princeton, and
Pennsylvania, were by no means rare. Classical
such good repute that but few of the shining legal
rs at once to the Greek and the Latin tongues.
e said concerning the future of classical scholarship
an not be denied that the division of labor, which is
g upon the domain of law, is accompanied by a deca-
cholarship among lawyers. Whether the so-called
which has been substituted for it, possesses all the
cessor is a qu stion presented for solution to the
It is even now difficult to decide whether the man
in the mere routine of raising a sledge hammer and
greater danger of mental atrophy than he who cranes
s his eyes for eight or ten hours daily, year in and
ng musty records—to such an extent has the division

of labor gone in the large law firms of our great cities. Whether the time will soon come when the term "the learned profession," as applied to law, will be a travesty upon justice is not for us to say as yet, but it is at least apparent that there is relatively a marked increase, not merely in the number of those who have never reached an advanced degree of proficiency, but of those also who have scarcely "bathed their lips in the fountain" of classical learning. We have it, moreover, on no less authority than that of Mr. James Bryce, the distinguished author of "The American Commonwealth," that "some judicious American observers hold that the last thirty years have witnessed a certain decadence in the bar of the greater cities."[1]

The work done by some of the private schools of the State during the early part of this century was hardly inferior in character to that of the best colleges of the land, and it was possible, if we may trust common report, for a young man to go out from the academy at Dover, with as complete and thorough a classical and mathematical training as that possessed by the average college graduate of that day.

The McKeans, Reads, McLanes, Claytons, Bayards, Ridgelys, and numerous other families of the State placed upon law and statesmanship a stamp of classical learning which lost none of its force under their immediate successors. The youth of that day who aspired to a study of Blackstone before he had read his Virgil and his Homer was an object of either contempt or pity to the profession. At the paternal knee the scion of the stock drank in with eager ears the story of the Sack of Troy and the Wrath of Achilles almost as early in life as Little Red Riding-Hood and Jack the Giant-Killer, which fell from the mother's lips.

An anecdote concerning Charles G. Ridgely, one of the most promising young men—he died before he had attained his fortieth year—the State has ever produced, illustrates the love of classical learning which was then universally prevalent. His father, the Hon. Henry Moore Ridgely, was serving his State in Congress at Washington when he addressed to his son Charles, who had then just turned his eighth year, the following letter which at once displays the beautiful moral character of both father and son and the astonishing precocity of the boy:

WASHINGTON, *29th November, 1812.*

MY DEAR CHARLES: Having just finished a long letter to your mother, I now sit down, although it is late in the afternoon, to answer your favor of the 22d of this month, which, with pleasure, I received and read on Thursday last.

I am highly pleased that you read in "Homer's Illiad" every day and hope that you will continue to admire it more and more. It is a beautiful poem, and the more it is read and understood the more it will be admired by every person. In truth, no person of any taste can read it but with delight. I trust that by this time, too, you have made yourself acquainted with the history of the life of Homer, who has been justly called the Prince of Poets. No doubt you have felt great desire to

[1] Bryce's American Commonwealth, Vol. II, 508.

s life and character of so famous a man. If you have not read
sketch of it in "Lempriere's Dictionary," and it can, I hope,
ll you where you may find his life to induce you to read it.
the season with you for improvement. You should acquire
thinking early in life If you are ever at a loss to understand
our mother, and never rest till you do understand it.

hope, to read every day in the Bible; that is a book that you
t. It contains the most interesting of histories, the best
nd the only guide to everlasting happiness. It teaches a
nning of the world; it teaches your duty to your God, your
and your neighbors. You will therefore, I hope, not fail to
l, as your understanding ripens, make yourself master of it,
man can make himself master of it.

hear from your mother, in every letter, that you are a good
e me so much pleasure as for you to continue so, and as you
crease in every virtue.

tly and tell me all the news of Dover. Is any word in this

tionate father,

H. M. RIDGELY.[1]

relate that Charles had already discovered the mis-
that his father received an early notification of the

e boy Charles graduated with high honors at col-
West Point. The following indicates how thoroughly
his classical studies. In 1824, when Charles G.
y years of age, Gen. Lafayette visited West Point.
in honor of the distinguished Frenchman, young
ectedly called upon to propose a toast. On his feet
lar cadet offered, "The survivors of the American
nantes in gurgite vasto,'" the beauty and appropriate-
ical allusion evoked from the assembled guests long-
and from the press universal commendation.

asters, whose education had been secured at the best
ame to Delaware in response to tempting offers from
ies and from parents whose financial resources per-
age private tutors for their boys, prepared students
res. This contributed somewhat towards bringing
the necessity of having a college within their own
children might be educated under their own vine

paved the way for the formulation of definite plans
nt of a college.[2]

1.

rwise, the minutes of the board of trustees and the faculty,
accessible through the courtesy of George G. Evans, esq., sec-
e the sources of information concerning Delaware College.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF DELAWARE COLLEGE.

Numerous appeals were made to the general assembly at its various sessions to establish a college, but nothing of importance was done until January 15, 1818, when an act was passed to enable the trustees of Newark Academy to raise $50,000 by a lottery for the purpose of erecting and establishing a college in Newark.[1]

The following-named gentlemen, then trustees of the academy, were appointed to manage the lottery: Rev. Dr. Thomas Read, the Rev. James M'Gran, the Rev. John Burton, the Rev. Samuel Bell, Dr. George Monro, George Gillespie, Walter Finney, William Cooch, Nicholas Van Dyke, Andrew Gray, Joseph Downing, and James R. Black.

The money raised by the lottery was to be applied to the erection of the college, and the surplus, if any, to the endowment thereof. The following was the mode of operation:

The managers were to proceed to the drawing and completion of the lottery either by classes or otherwise. The prizes were to be paid within one year after the class to which they belonged had finished drawing, subject, however, to a deduction of 15 per centum. If any prize was not demanded, it should be applied to the purpose for which the lottery was instituted; provided that notice of the fortunate numbers had been given in the press of the State and of the neighboring cities, Philadelphia and Baltimore. The managers were allowed to sell the scheme of the lottery or employ agents to sell some or all of the tickets, provided security was given. If the tickets were not sold within five years the managers were under obligations to return the sums paid for the tickets.

In 1821 the college was granted the proceeds of certain taxes on stage lines and on steamboats plying between Philadelphia and points on the Delaware. The tax on stage lines was fixed at 8 per cent on fares received from persons above 14 years of age and 4 per cent from those between 4 and 14. Each steamboat was taxed 25 cents for each passenger over 14, and 12½ cents for every one between 4 and 14.[2]

It was ordered in 1824 that the money raised by the above devices should be invested in some productive stock, which, with the dividends on it and further donations, should form the "college fund."[3]

The act of 1818 was supplemented in 1825 by an act limiting the sum to be raised by lottery to $50,000.

February 11, 1835, another act was passed for the benefit of the college. According to it the lottery scheme might be employed in raising $100,000 to be applied as follows: The sum of $50,000 was to go to the college, $25,000 was to be applied to the "fund for establishing schools in the State of Delaware," and $25,000 was for the use of the State.[4]

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[1] Laws of Delaware, v, 278.
[2] *Ibid.*, 380.
[3] *Ibid.*, vi, 61, 265.,
[4] Ibid., viii, 392.

to establish a college by means of a lottery were sup-
n time to time by acts in which the lottery scheme was
In 1821 the general assembly passed an act "to estab-
t the village of Newark or its vicinity for the education
e English, Latin, and Greek languages, besides arts and

vided that the institution should bear the name of "Del-
," and that the board of trustees should consist of not
ty members, to be appointed by the general assembly.[1]
ewark College" was established under a charter granted
33, and buildings were at once erected.[2]

THE CHARTER.

rovisions of the charter granted by the act of February
s follows:

acted, etc., That a college for instructing students in languages,
, with power to confer degrees, shall be established at Newark, in
name of "Newark College." There shall be a board of trustees of
sting of not more than thirty-three members; there shall be a fac-
ge composed of the teachers whom the board of trustees shall from
sider it expedient to employ. No member of the faculty shall be a
rd of trustees shall choose by ballot from their own members their
ry, and treasurer.
lowing gentlemen were appointed trustees: Thomas Clayton, Will-
R. Black, Peter Robinson, David Hazard, Rev. E. W. Gilbert, Sam-
w Gray, Henry Whiteiy, George Platt, Joseph Chamberlain, Thomas
y M. Ridgely, John M. Clayton, Joseph G. Oliver, John C. Groome,
ra Rogers, Rev. S. W. Prestman, William Meteer, William D.
r L. Hayes, Louis McLane, Rev. Joseph Magraw, Rev. Robert Gra-
l Bell, Richard H. Bayard, Benjamin C. Howard, Samuel McKean,
per, Arnold Naudain, Allan Thompson, and James Booth.
perty of the corporation was limited to $20,000 yearly. The char-
for twenty years, but could be revoked at the will of the general

rporation could not be dissolved by a failure of the trustees to effect
f the board to choose a president or to appoint a faculty.
te treasurer was required to transfer to the trustees all the stock and
ollege fund" created by the act of 1821.
k and money when thus transferred were to become the stock and
e college.
llege buildings, when completed, were to be transferred, together
y the trustees of Newark Academy to the trustees of the college.
he lottery fund was to be transferred to the trustees of the college
nt of the same.
of the charter was to be furnished to the second-named trustee,
hose duty it was to give notice of the first meeting of the board of

t passed in 1821, under which nothing had been done, was thereby

[1] Laws, VIII, 283–286.
[2] were added in 1841 and 1843, and in 1851 a new charter was granted.

THE AVENUE OF LINDENS, DELAWARE COLLEGE.

One of the most notable features of this document under which the college was opened was the nomination for trustees of men prominent in State circles and well known abroad. John M. Clayton, Louis McLane, Richard H. Bayard, and Henry M. Ridgely were in their prime and distinguished in national councils.

THE COLLEGE ORGANIZED.

Pursuant to the directions of the charter, Willard Hall called a meeting of the trustees at Newark, April 1, 1833, and an organization was effected by the appointment of Willard Hall to be chairman and James R. Black secretary of the board. At this first meeting many of the gentlemen who had been appointed trustees signified by letter that they would not accept the position, but there was nevertheless a considerable number present. After the election of Rev. E. W. Gilbert permanent president of the board the trustees adjourned.

During the rest of the year 1833 the main portion of the present structure was completed and arrangements were made to open the college for the reception of students.

It is unfortunate that the buildings were not constructed with more regard to architectural effect as well as comfort. A "Friend to Education," in a letter to the Delaware Gazette in 1847, thus describes them: "The college buildings at Newark—they are like self-righteousness, the more you have of them the worse you are—the architecture of which is about as easy to describe, according to the five modes, either collectively or separately, as if the building materials, fifteen years ago, had been blown together in a storm."

PLAN OF INSTRUCTION.

September 13, 1833, the board of trustees met and adopted the following plan of instruction and government:

Two courses of instruction were offered: I. The academic course. II. The collegiate course. I. The academic course was actually equivalent to the courses offered by the Newark Academy, which in the following year was absorbed by the college. The course was offered for the benefit of those students who wished instruction in English grammar, arithmetic, the elements of Latin and Greek, all other branches taught in academies, and any branch of literature and science taught in the college. Thus, students in the academic course who did not care to pursue a complete collegiate course might have the advantage of instruction by the college professors and the use of the apparatus.

II. The collegiate course consisted of four classes—freshman, sophomore, junior, senior. The admission of any applicant into the freshman class was to be determined by examination.

We quote from the minutes of this meeting—

The plan of instruction in the college shall embrace the Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish languages, mathematics, mechanics, astronomy, chemistry, and other branches of natural philosophy, geography, history, and belles-lettres. The particu-

an not be judiciously determined without consultation with
s advice also the text-books should be selected. But Paley's
his Evidences of Christanity shall be text-books, unless sub-
be adopted by the faculty, with the assent of the trustees.

to be opened with two teachers, one of whom was to
hy, mathematics, mechanics, astronomy, chemistry,
natural philosophy;" the duty of the other was to give
English, Latin, and Greek languages and ancient
y. Especial attention was to be given to the correct
glish language.

duates "selected for suitable qualifications" could
ers, and each was to receive a room and board in the
on, one of the teachers who had been chosen princi-
ion having been made because of the nature of the
was to be paid an annual salary of $1,000 and the

notation indicates the policy adopted in assigning to
ir proper functions:

d be independent in his station, acting on his own responsi-
on which this assertion is made is deemed essential to the
of the institutions of our Government; it arises from the fact
office is upon personal confidence in the officer appointed, and
ar force in the case of a teacher, the instance of the highest
reposed.

made for acquiring a library and gradually increas-
chemical and other apparatus. But these matters
mpted until teachers had been secured, with whose
ns should be perfected. "It is deemed of the highest
teachers whose views shall be confined to and whose
upon the usefulness and prosperity of the college.
deemed sufficient to give a view of the institution
ts operations."

THE FIRST FACULTY, 1833.

, 1833, the trustees elected Albert Smith and Nathan
rships in the new institution. Upon the refusal of
cept the unsought for honor, John Holmes Agnew,
ayes Agnew, the famous surgeon, was elected to fill
27, 1834. Under Mr. Monroe, who was chosen prin-
ew the college was to be opened.

two men to manage an institution which proposed
ic and collegiate work must have been apparent to
they were, upon the whole, men of considerable edu-
m having studied at the best colleges in the country.
d that during this trying period of educational in-
one man, at least, who dared to declare that the
ege at home, as well as its standing abroad, depended

upon the unparsimonious use of funds in the employment of instructors. Andrew Gray, a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania, and grandfather of the Hon. George Gray, who now represents Delaware in the United States Senate, made a determined fight for the opening of the college under four instead of two professors, on the ground that two were insufficient to do the work anticipated, and that under such a régime it was unreasonable to expect patronage.

Defeated, but undaunted, he made a final stand for three professors, and succeeded in carrying his point by the close vote of six to five. To the third professor was to be paid the unpretentious salary of $500 a year. Mr. N. Z. Graves was elected to the newly-created chair July 9, 1834.

THE FIRST TERM, MAY 8, TO SEPTEMBER 24, 1834.

The doors of the college were thrown open to students immediately after the inaugural exercises of May 8, 1834, and during the first term 64 students, of whom 42 were boarders, were enrolled. Alexander T. Gray was the only student sufficiently advanced to enter the collegiate department, and he was enrolled as a sophomore.

At this time the school year was divided into a winter and a summer session. The winter session began on the first Wednesday in November and continued until the third Wednesday in April, when a vacation of five weeks was given. Then the summer term began, and extended until the third week in September, so that commencement exercises were held in the autumn and diplomas were handed to happy seniors at the close instead of at the beginning of the heated season. It is needless to state that this plan was never entirely satisfactory. The confinement indoors of farmers' sons, who were accustomed to an outdoor life in summer, brought to many of them a debilitation which prevented satisfactory study. There was moreover a greater tendency to infringement of rules during the camp-meeting season, when the Delaware youth was not able to withstand the blandishments of his best girl, who was always on the camp-ground, prepared, as he well knew, to win other devotees if her first choice failed to appear. Soon a general sentiment sprang up against the scheme, and in 1845 the system now in vogue was adopted, with the exception that the fall term began early enough to give eighteen weeks of active work before the Christmas holidays.

Expenses during the early period were so few that almost everyone desiring to patronize the institution could easily do so. Board at first was only $1.25 a week; soon, however, it was raised to $1.50, and in 1836 to $1.75. Tuition was $10 and room rent $2.50 a term, both payable in advance. No entrance fee was demanded at first. In March of the following year the board of trustees decided to charge an entrance fee of $3 into the academic department, $5 into the freshman and sophomore classes, $7 into the junior class, and $10 into the senior class. By the exercise of scrupulous economy the student could spend a year at "Newark College" for a trifle over $100.

CURRICULUM, 1834.

h the approval of the professors, adopted the follow-
ndidates for admission into the freshman class were
n examination in the following studies, which com-
the academic department: English grammar, geog-
Latin grammar, Latin reader, Cornelius Nepos, Sal-
, Roman Antiquities, Grecian Antiquities, "writing
mmar and exercises, Greek reader, and "the four
ek." Students who manifested suitable proficiency
n those required might be admitted if the faculty

department the following scheme was in vogue:
s, first term: Mythology, with Gould's Ovid; Adams's
; Fulsom's Livy commenced; Græca Majora (Xeno-
, Anabasis, Memorabilia); Lacroix's Arithmetic;
Second term: Fulsom's Livy completed; Cicero de
jora (Herodotus, Isocrates, The Odyssey); Smyth's
.

ass, first term: Tacitus; Græca Majora (Demosthenes,
mathematics (Legendre's Geometry); nature and
Smyth's Trigonometry. Second term: Horace (Odes
ca Majora (Euripides); Cambridge mathematics
ces); surveying; navigation; application of algebra
ug, projections; principles of general grammar (De
of English grammar; Newman's Rhetoric; English

s, first term: Horace continued; Græca Majora
idge mechanics; calculus; Brown's Philosophy of
Hedge's), with reference to Abercrombie and other
Second term: Horace completed; Græca Majora
ld's Natural Philosophy, Paley's Moral and Political
reference to other standard authors; logic.
, first term: Græca Majora (Longinus); Cicero de
y; chemistry (Turner's); Paley's Natural Theology
hristianity. Second term: Bulter's Analogy; Say's
; Smellie's Philosophy of Natural History, Miner-
y.

dditional exercises were required in the collegiate
ations from ancient and modern history, a recitation
kly, reading of the English language, private decla-
wer and public declamations from the upper classes,
om the seniors, frequent translations from the Eng-
Greek and from Latin and Greek into English from
Instruction in Hebrew was provided during a part

of the year. Lectures were delivered to the students on natural theology and oratory, on ancient languages and literature, and on rhetoric; annual exhibitions were expected from each class.

The reader will be impressed with the prominence given to the ancient classics, mathematics, and oratory in the above curriculum, and its close resemblance to the curricula of the best colleges in the land. A careful comparison with those of Yale, Princeton, and the University of Pennsylvania will convince one that the promises held out at Newark were just as great as those at other places. That an honest effort was made to fulfill them can not be doubted by him who reads, as the writer has done, the minutes of the faculty. Frequent cases of expressed desires to escape from the stringent prescriptions of the curriculum were met by emphatic refusals in almost every particular.

GOVERNMENT.

The ideal of government set up by the authorities for the college was that of a happy family. The duty of the faculty was to "exercise careful and affectionate superintendence over the morals and health of the students, as well as aid them in and urge them to literary attainments." The necessity of judicious physical exercise for the student was recognized by the trustees, and they granted to the faculty the power to make rules concerning the matter. To the faculty was granted the power to suspend refractory students, but their expulsion remained in the hands of the trustees.

The trustees stated that "The object of the institution is to prepare young gentlemen to be estimable and useful citizens, by guiding and aiding them to form such habits and make such attainments as shall be effectual for accomplishing this object. The course to attain this object shall be steadfastly pursued; nothing inconsistent with it can be permitted. Good order and scrupulous regard to moral habits, are indispensable to the prosperity of the institution." To this end, "there shall be morning and evening worship. The time of morning worship in the first term shall be at daylight until the 10th of February, and during the remainder of the year at 6 o'clock. The time of evening worship shall be at sunset in the first term until the 20th of March, and at 6 o'clock during the remainder of the year." Punctual attendance upon the devotional exercises was required of all students who resided in the college. The Sabbath was observed with scrupulous nicety. No student residing in the college was permitted to leave the premises without the permission of the faculty or under their direction. Nor might he "engage in any diversion or unsuitable reading or study, or receive visitors, or otherwise profane the day." Furthermore, attendance upon public worship was required and Bible lessons were studied at an hour prescribed by the faculty.

ovisions were faithfully executed it goes without say-
ath was a day of inquisition to the college boy of that
ax of sabbatarianism had well nigh been reached and
nists in the town of Newark must have felt a warm
college.

term sixteen students left the institution: Seven on
n account of sympathy with the suspended, and five
ealth. The large number of students—about 16 per
college on account of insubordination indicate that
ot find it an easy task to organize and arrange the
ments which had never before been subject to a sin-
e confrontation of the three elements—trustees, fac-
s—no one of which comprehended as yet the proper
sustained to the other two, caused much friction in
nts of the machinery of government. The faculty
t few months to have devoted themselves principally
alcitrant students, some of whom later in life filled
local and national circles. The writer has in mind a
nic course, scarcely in his teens, whose visits to the
were as frequent as those of inveterate thieves to
, Delaware's refined relic of the inquisition, at the
of that same mischievous boy, when he was promoted

age of the minutes of the faculty during the early
aw broken, a youth summoned before the tribunal of
ant reply, which the faculty often designated as "un-
impudent." A youth was once arraigned on the
been found in the belfry engaged in fastening a long
ue of the bell, for the purpose of more easily disturb-
e college. He of course acknowledged the fact, since
vered there by one of the professors, although he pre-
d gone up for the purpose of taking off the twine."
nimously resolved that he have his option of ringing
ular hours for one week, or being confined in a room
space of time to live on bread *or*[1] water, with inter-
the open air at such time as the other students are
Having declined to submit to either of these humiliat-
boy was summarily dismissed for one month.

which students were arraigned during the first few
e were: Mutilation of the building, impudence to the
l attendance at the neighboring camp meetings, the
ves, breaking of windows, "purloining," reading at
atory, drunkenness, from which great trouble was ex-

[1] intended for "and," but the records of the faculty are quoted

perienced by the college, and resistance to the authority of the faculty, even to personal assault upon its members, as was charged in one case.[1]

For these offenses the following punishments were inflicted: Bread and water for five or ten days, together with solitary confinement, suspension, expulsion, public admonition or reproof, and corporal punishment, which was once inflicted upon a boy for going to camp meeting without the permission of the faculty. There was no such bedlam, however, as this would indicate. The reader will keep in mind the fact that the college was not yet well under way; that the majority of students were in the academic course, and that the first few years were spent in preparing them to appreciate the college. As soon as a goodly number of well-equipped students were received the wheels moved more easily and work of a high grade was done.

The following letter from the eminent surgeon, D. Hayes Agnew, who was one of Dr. Gilbert's students, gives a graphic picture of the college at that time:

NORTHWEST CORNER SIXTEENTH AND WALNUT,
Philadelphia, August 19, 1889.

Mr. L. P. POWELL:

MY DEAR SIR:

* * * * * * *

Prof. Agnew was a fine classical scholar, an excellent teacher, and an eloquent speaker.

He was a very attractive man in the pulpit.

President Gilbert was in person of a slender build, of medium size, with sleek, gray hair, and of an active, nervous temperament.

He had an intellectual face, was always interesting in the chapel, and excelled as a disciplinarian.

Prof. Dodd was much esteemed not only for his recognized ability as a mathematician, but also for his great simplicity of character. We were a lively set of boys and guilty of many foolish pranks, but, on the whole, not worse than the young men in similar institutions at the present time. The refectory was infamous, poor fare and badly served.

Very truly, your friend,

D. HAYES AGNEW

THE "PARSON" BELL CASE.

The election of the first president was due to a dissatisfaction on the part of the trustees with the action of the faculty in the "Parson" Bell affair.

It appears that both of the professors (the third had not yet entered upon his duties) had occasion to be absent one night from the college,

[1] This, however, is not without numerous parallels to-day. The writer recalls a recent instance in which there was in a well-known sectarian college such a dearth of law and order as to prompt a large body of students to attempt to intimidate a faculty from the discharge of their duty, and even to hurl into their midst a stone, which came near striking the president.

ded, and left Rev. Samuel Bell, popularly known as
charge of the institution. He, under the conviction
ty to do something for the Lord should never be neg-
to hold a prayer meeting in the oratory. Such a step
o whom authority had been delegated by those whose
ern the institution in person, and a man greatly dis-
nts, was met by a popular outbreak. The meeting
finally broken up by "cat calls," derisive cries, etc.
f the professors vigorous action was taken; seven of
suspended, and four, who sympathized with the cul-
left. At the first meeting of the trustees, September
olved "that all religious exercises, except those con-
chers of the college or the president of the board of
ded, and that no night meetings be hereafter held."
the faculty was disapproved of, and a resolution was
them for inviting Rev. Samuel Bell to officiate in their
evening of the disturbance, when they knew "his
the students." This, however, was not passed, but the
esolutions modifying and lessening the punishment
ho had been suspended.

sue was the relation of the faculty to the trustees.
ng whom were some of the leading legal lights of
pon the assumption that the trustees in their relations
od upon the same platform as the Supreme Court to
. It remained for the first president, Dr. E. W. Gil-
hese erroneous views and to set out in a clear light the
l duties of the various elements of the college. A
end these has strewn the educational field with the
ions.

elected to the presidency of Newark College Sep-
ut before accepting the trust he addressed to the
the following clear and sensible letter, which has
greater part in the history of the college than any
ivate paper:

LIPHALET WHEELER GILBERT'S LETTER.

Committee of Conference:

iving a positive answer to the very honorable proposal made
hich you represent, I feel it to be important to have a clear,
of several points connected with the office which I am invited

I wish an explicit understanding with the committee as to
the faculty may look for the support of the trustees.

overnment should be left to the faculty, and adduces
rences from the general principles of the charter, the

fewness of the by-laws, and impressions which he had received from conversations with those who had a hand in drawing up the by-laws. He furthermore declares it his uniform conviction—

that no college deserving the name can be maintained on any other principle than unlimited, or next to unlimited, confidence in the faculty. On this, I wish to have the sense of the committee and of the board. First, because the frequent exercise of discipline, and of severe discipline, too, will from the very nature of southern character be inevitable in the first years of the institution, and nothing but an independent, unchanging, and impartial course, sustained by the trustees with all their power will enable the college to live through the first five years. If the faculty can be thwarted and weakened by successful appeals to the trustees, in mitigation or reversal of sentence, successful government is out of the question; the officers of the college will be despised and mocked by refractory students, and no faculty fit to govern such an institution would consent to hold so painful a place.

In the next place, because this is the uniform custom throughout New England, and in all the respectable colleges of our land. * * * Is it unreasonable that those should have the right and power of governing an institution who must in public estimation bear the responsibility of its good or ill management? If the faculty, as our plan contemplates, are to "identify themselves with the institution," and to rise or sink, live or die with it, is it unreasonable to concede the privilege of governing it in their own way? * * * (In my opinion as a trustee, I may, perhaps, be permitted here, as elsewhere, to express the opinion: The faculty ought to be *sovereign* in their own department, and the only power exercised over them by the trustees should be the power of removal, except where the faculty are divided in sentiment, in which case the trustees are the proper body to decide.)

He then disclaims any intention to dictate terms to the trustees, but pleads for an immediate interpretation of the principles of the infant institution, in order that conflicts between the faculty and the trustees may be avoided.

If as a trustee I might be permitted to give my views of the duty of the faculty in reference to the trustees, I would say: The faculty, though sovereign in their own department, ought to report regularly and fully to the board every instance of discipline with the grounds thereof. They ought in general to suspend only till the end of a session, or till the meeting of the board, leaving it to the board to judge of the propriety of extending the suspension or punishment to a longer period. The advice or recommendation of the faculty to extend the punishment in any given case should, without good reasons to the contrary, be adopted by the board. The trustees should give advice whenever they deem it necessary, and the faculty should regard it as the highest expression of public sentiment in the case. But in my humble opinion no important unanimous decision of the faculty should ever be set aside by an authoritative decision of the board, except in the last resort.

He professes himself willing to accept the appointment if the policy which he has outlined meets the approval of the board and a satisfactory salary be attached to the office; and in conclusion subscribes himself,

Very respectfully, yours,

E. W. GILBERT.

"WILMINGTON, *September 25, 1834.*"

THE REPLY OF THE TRUSTEES.

r. Gilbert's claims was allowed and the policy which l direct and govern the relation of trustees to the d with slight qualifications. The following quotation will best illustrate the position which they assumed:

und in superintending the college to examine the manner and rnment, not to revise a case in matter of discipline, to undo, at the faculty have done, but to determine whether the gen- overnment is salutary, within the scope of the by-laws, and the institution. They are to survey the transactions of the ether wisdom and justice characterize them. If the general ory, this warrants a satisfactory presumption for particular is, not whether the trustees would have done what the faculty lar cases, but whether upon the whole view the faculty are If they are, the trustees should sustain them; if they are not ed.

sion of the board of trustees it was resolved that the receive an annual salary of $1,000 "without board llowance therefor." Dr. Gilbert thereupon accepted lent of the college and resigned the presidency of ees.

ESIDENT, ELIPHALET WHEELER GILBERT, D. D.

ler Gilbert was born December 19, 1793, at Lebanon, radnated from Union College in 1813 and the next nceton Theological Seminary. He was licensed to nd served on a mission of six months to the West. r he was called to the pastorate of the Second Pres- of Wilmington, Del. In 1829 the building of the hurch caused a division of the congregation, though llowed their pastor to the new edifice. He was ap- the American Education Society in May, 1834, and he same year was chosen president of Delaware Col- l the presidency on June 8, 1835, and for the next l once more at the Hanover Street Church. In May, led to the presidency of Delaware College, which he until April, 1847. He then accepted a call from the rian Church in Philadelphia, and remained there until , 1853. The University of Vermont conferred upon D. D. in 1841.

blished a volume called "The Letters of Paul and gical disputation with the Hicksite Quakers, which current periodicals; two tracts—one on "Regenera- Perseverance;" and articles in the Presbyterian Re- y," "the Apocalypse," and "Millenarianism." All indicate great talent.

Dr. Gilbert was a man of clear mind and decided views; skilled as a controversialist, yet with such courtesy to his opponents that when the joust was over they were among the first to sit down in his tent. He was mighty in the Scriptures and studied them with constant care. His effort as a preacher was to set forth the truth in strong, sharp outlines, yet these outlines were often illuminated and tinted by vivid lights and touches. He was an omnivorous reader, and drew knowledge and illustration from every available source. In the discussion of theological questions he charmed his hearers by crystalline statements, acute distinctions, and the playful radiance which he threw over all. His life ran into that of the church at large like a clear, bright stream, whose qualities were only diffused, not lost, after the stream had ceased to flow.[1]

Rev. Benjamin J. Wallace writes of Dr. Gilbert:

He was almost pure intellection. His especial characteristic was a keen, active, inquiring, investigating, analyzing mind. His mind was remarkably rapid and versatile, his memory so tenacious that he seemed never to forget anything. But he did not undertake comprehensive schemes of learning, such as reading the whole of the Christian fathers or all the Greek classic authors. He loved in reading to keep in view some salient human interest. He analyzed everything, but especially the human mind, and the mind rather in action than at rest. He kept a list of the works he read. They average nearly a volume a week, read through and digested. Yet a more original man scarcely lived. Every expression was from his own mint, obverse and reverse, sharply struck, motto and device clearly defined. He was singularly careless about his literary reputation. The hived information gathered from twenty books he would bestow on you for the asking; and when he agreed to write it would be with extreme rapidity, little correcting, and not much heed to fix everything so as to make the best impression.[2]

He possessed not only the instincts, but also the methods and industry of the scholar. The light from his study window always greeted the belated student. Even in scanning the newspaper his atlas lay open before him. "Although of slight form and delicate constitution he had great dignity of presence, and no one dared take any liberties with him," remarks Dr. Purnell. "Dr. Gilbert is *all head*," said a woman who knew him well. Short of stature and slender, with a finely shaped head, a clear hazel eye, "a womanlike nose," a prominent chin, and a "squeaky voice, which once heard was never forgotten," says Dr. Caleb P. Johnson, and the picture of his personal appearance is complete.

Delaware College may well congratulate itself that the first president was fitted by nature and education to launch the frail bark upon the waters of a permanent existence. Dr. Gilbert stands an enduring witness of the truth of Emerson's words, "An institution is the lengthened shadow of one man;" for the policy which he outlined has never been abandoned and his personality remains to this day stamped upon his surviving pupils.

The new president from the day of his inauguration adopted such a firm and salutary method of discipline that many of the clouds of the previous term were speedily chased away and he was able to make the

[1] Nevins, Presbyterian Encyclopædia, Art. on Gilbert. The writer is indebted to ex-President Wm. H. Purnell and other students of Dr. Gilbert for many facts concerning the first president.

[2] Sprague, Annals of the American Pulpit, IV, 596–600.

the trustees at their meeting April 20, 1835: "In the highest degree of order, studiousness, and exem- manifested. We have had next to nothing to con- ery much, to commend. No case of public discipline only one case of private admonition." The unruli- all boys had caused some trouble in the grammar s to be avoided in the future by placing the govern- l into the hands of its principal. In 1834–35, 94 stu- l, of whom 23 were in the collegiate department.

PROFESSORSHIPS.

lition had yet been made to the working force of the ng scheme of professorships was adopted as early as sions were to be carried out as soon as feasible:
t to be professor of rhetoric and oratory.
ancient languages and classical literature.
mental and moral philosophy and of Biblical litera-

mathematics and natural philosophy.
chemistry, mineralogy, and natural history.
odern languages.
anatomy and physiology.

THE LOTTERY SCHEME.

t's conscience not being elastic he could not rest con- cipal fund of the college was derived from a lottery. eneration this plan of raising money is objectionable, f men who have passed their three score years will a day when it was common to aid benevolent and prises, even churches, by lotteries. Many of the nic New England were erected by sums derived from anchest and most conscientious church people as well ere moralists did not hesitate to engage in such

age of higher ethical culture has drawn the line wrong so hard and fast that there is no room on the ries, and he who engages therein imperils his ethical he same time we are presented with the anomaly of e gambling, a more refined species, standing on the a vigorous public condemnation is concerned. Yet in the latter are by no means so scrupulous in their

n a considerable sentiment against lotteries, for Niles' Register after announcing the passage of an act by the Delaware senate g of $100,000 by lotteries for Newark College, pertinently in- pass into a law!"

conduct as the lottery managers of fifty years ago, nor is the end in view so worthy.

To certain trustees, as well as Dr. Gilbert, the lottery scheme appeared of doubtful propriety, and at a meeting held April 20, 1835, a resolution was offered renouncing the benefits of the lottery and refusing to receive aid for the college from that source. No conclusion was reached at this meeting; but on June 23, 1835, the motion was again considered. The committee in charge of the funds arising from the lottery reported that after expenditures for the purchase of land and the college buildings there remained in their hands subject to the order of the trustees, $30,250.40.

The motion to refuse the aid of the lottery was passed with some amendments. But at the same meeting the matter was reconsidered, and upon motion of Mr. Ridgely all resolutions in reference to refusing the material aid offered to the institution were rejected. Thirteen of the twenty trustees present voted for Mr. Ridgely's motion and the rest, who were probably opposed to the lottery, did not vote at all.

Feeling that he could no longer remain in a college which rested upon an immoral basis, Dr. Gilbert resigned, August 11, 1835, and Dr. Richard S. Mason was elected to succeed him, October 9, 1835.

THE SECOND PRESIDENT, RICHARD SHARP MASON, D. D.

Richard Sharp Mason was born December 29, 1795, on Barbadoes, one of the West India Islands. He was graduated from the University of Pennsylvania and, in 1817, was made a deacon in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Three years later he was received into the order of priests, and from about 1818 to 1829 acted as rector of Christ Church at New Berne, N. C. He was president of Geneva (now Hobart) College from 1829 until he was called to the presidency of Newark College in 1835. He returned to North Carolina in 1840 and served as rector of Christ Church, Raleigh, until his death in 1875. He was made a D. D. by the University of Pennsylvania in 1829. He published "A letter to the Bishop of North Carolina on the subject of his late Pastorate" (New York, 1850), and "The Baptism of Infants defended from the Objections of Antipaedo Baptists," edited by his son (1874). "All who knew Dr. Mason can testify to the purity of his life and the sincerity of his character."[1]

Dr. Mason's scholarship and his force as a metaphysician were universally acknowledged; but he seemed to lack administrative ability, tact, and knowledge of boys. "He knew no more about a boy than about a kangaroo," said a gentleman who knew him well. Consequently he did not succeed either in managing the students or in winning from the trustees confidence in his ability to do so.

[1] Appleton's Cyclopædia; article on Mason. Wheeler's Reminiscences of North Carolina, 445.

dicates that he had great difficulty in disciplining
, and that there was a return to the scenes of the
ons of good order became grosser. The mutilation
carried so far that the president suggested to the
ency of casing the pillars with sheet iron.

s experienced from the prevalence of drunkenness.
ed the stores and taverns of the town to sell no
liquors to the students of the college. A committee
ed by the trustees, at the suggestion of Dr. Mason,
ral assembly "to prohibit the sale of liquors to the
College."[1]

ril, 1840, a fire broke out in one of the rooms over
h the indiscretion of the occupant, but was extin-
damage exceeded $60.

ts in behalf of the college were constant and earnest,
ible waning of patronage that produced great unrest
with the administration. In his report of April 7, 1840,
in the slow growth of the college. He calls attention
y, and says, "the standard of learning in a college
than is generally supposed on the character of its
res that "the course of study is as elevated as that
college of repute in our country; certainly higher
olleges of fair reputation. That the instructors are
on this course must be presumed until there is evi-
ry." But he pleads further for a sufficient number
ve the information usually sought for at such an
as that the attention of each may not be distracted
pursuits, but be directed as much as possible to one
rding thereby the benefit of that division of labor
literary as well as mechanical operation." He
rease of all the essentials of college life so that the
t continue a feeble and struggling existence, but
lth, vigor, and rapidity."

not believe that Dr. Mason had located the actual
oration of the college and did not hesitate to so
. The president was censured for not visiting the
professors oftener. He defended himself on the
eved it would not be attended with material advant-
the trustees to define his duties more clearly.

as requested September 23, 1840, but October 12 of
ction was rescinded, and his resignation which had
not accepted. But he again resigned, and in his
me shock which the college had lately received from
it would not speedily recover.

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the sale of spirituous liquors to the students of Delaware Col-
bruary 24, 1843. (Laws of Delaware College, 1857, p. 32.)

BY-LAWS.

November 10, 1836, the trustees adopted a set of by-laws for the government of the college. Four departments, with a professor for each, were established. (1) Languages: Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, German, Italian. (2) Mathematics. (3) Mental and Moral Philosophy. (4) Natural and Experimental Philosophy. The "blue laws" for the keeping of the Sabbath were greatly modified. The tuition fee for irregular and academic students was fixed at $20, and for collegiate students $25 per annum. Room rent was $10 per annum. No student under 14 years of age was allowed to room in the college unless by special consent of the faculty. Students were forbidden to have in their rooms intoxicants (unless by a physician's orders), dogs, guns, swords, dirks, or any deadly weapon.

CURRICULUM.

The following curriculum was in vogue during Dr. Mason's administration:

I. Freshman class: Classical geography and chronology, Livy, Virgil's Georgics, Greek historians and philosophers, Greek testament, algebra, geometry, Greek and Roman mythology.

II. Sophomore class: Horace (odes, satires, and epistles), Homer's Iliad and Odyssey, trigonometry, analytical geometry, rhetoric, Paley's Evidences of Christianity, Greek testament.

III. Junior class: Tacitus, the Greek tragic and lyric poets, Cicero de Officiis, calculus, chemistry, logic, Kames's Elements of Criticism, Paley's Moral Philosophy, history of Roman literature, Greek testament, English composition and elocution.

IV. Senior class: Archeology of literature and art, Cicero de Oratore, Kames's Intellectual Philosophy, mechanics, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, mineralogy, geology, Kent's Commentaries, Butler's Analogy, Greek testament, forensic discussion, composition and criticism.

In addition public declamations were required from the students and public lectures delivered before them. A comparison of this curriculum with that first adopted will show a great advance in grade. Nor will it compare unfavorably with the curricula of first-class colleges of to-day. The test of the grade of the college is the persistence with which the curriculum was followed. The records of the faculty show an honest effort to fulfill the promises which had been made to the public. Instances could be cited in which students were released from certain minor features of the course only after earnest supplication, supported by good reasons. It is conclusive from a careful reading of the minutes that the grade of scholarship was high.

STUDENTS.

At the conclusion of Dr. Mason's term of office the college had 42 students, of whom 19 were in the preparatory department. In 1837 the

o admit to the college, free of tuition, ministerial stu-
ng 10 in number. There had been during the year
college, and in 1838 the whole number, including
ratory department, was 71.[1]

, the board resolved to separate the academic stu-
f the college and to procure another building for the
gly preparations were made to build on the academy
ce for recitations, without dormitory and refectory,
re than $2,000, which sum was increased in 1840 to

THE FIRST GRADUATES.

tes received diplomas September 28, 1836. They were
n, John Martin, E. B. Foote, Isaiah G. De Grasse.
ham, the first valedictorian, acquired a great reputa-
for brilliancy in the art of composition. Although
he age of 18 he was straightway appointed tutor in
Four years later he was elected principal of New Lon-
l in 1841 of Newark Academy. While teaching at
d the daughter of Dr. E. W. Gilbert. In 1845 or 1846
an academy at Harrisburg, where he died at the early
successful career.

aker, a prominent Presbyterian divine of Southold,
n: "He was one of most accomplished and skillful
ve ever known. • • • Although small, fair, and
an, he was a remarkably efficient and scholarly man."
graduates of 1836, except John Martin, who had died
received the degree of M. A., the first occasion of its
vark College."[2]

RESIDENT GILBERT RECALLED, 1840.

rt was chosen to be president a second time, October
ed to accept the honor on condition that certain
d below proved acceptable to the board of trustees:
ident of the faculty should be *ex officio* a member of the board

ttery scheme of the board should be given up, or that the leg-
an appropriation of the same amount as had been raised by
the institution in a less objectionable way."[3]
lege should be gradually brought under Presbyterian influence
e vacancies in the board of trustees, as they occurred, by nomi-
ation.

1837-38 says: "Although more than four years have elapsed
f this college, it has but recently been fully and firmly organ-

, was conferred at the same time upon Edward M. Forbes, a
e of Geneva, N. Y.
had alienated many religious people.

He said further that in compliance with the third clause in particular, he would pledge to the college the patronage of the Third Presbytery of Philadelphia, and the Synod of Pennsylvania, "bodies able to furnish of themselves enough students to fill any ordinary college and competent also to supply any reasonable amount of funds for the endowment of the institution."

The board readily acceded to these propositions, and Dr. Gilbert accordingly assumed the duties of president. No greater proof of the force of the man need be sought than that in his relations with the trustees he carried every point which he raised. This, in view of the fact that at that time John M. Clayton, Henry M. Ridgely, Andrew C. Gray, and men of like caliber were trustees, is truly remarkable. When he was first elected the trustees were in the habit of interfering in the government of the college. Dr. Gilbert would not accept the presidency until they retreated from this position. At the time of his second election the lottery scheme was in full operation. Not until it had been given up would he again become head of the college. He might, indeed, have claimed, with no great extravagance, to paraphase the words of the French king, "I am the college."

THE END OF THE LOTTERY SCHEME.

But what were the trustees to do in reference to the money raised by the lottery? They were not long in devising a plan by which they might secure its benefits and cleanse their consciences at the same time from moral taint. They would not accept the money immediately from the lottery managers, but would turn it over to the State treasury, and then by a special act of the legislature appropriate the identical amount to Newark College, by which it would be duly accepted and used. Thus was the lottery scheme settled. Certain plain-spoken persons boldly, though inelegantly, suggested that "this was merely whipping the devil around the stump."

AN ABLE FACULTY.

President Gilbert was supported during his second term by a faculty of unusual ability, nearly every member of which soon afterwards acquired a national reputation. There was William A. Norton, at first professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, but later president.[1] Then came Rev. George Allen to take the chair of Latin and Greek. Next in importance was Eben Norton Horsford, an itinerant lecturer on chemistry. John A. Porter was professor of rhetoric, and Dr. James S. Bell the first professor of modern languages. Francis J. Warner and Rev. Henry F. Bowen were tutors. Monsieur B. Hoffay taught French in 1842 and received $100 for his services.

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[1] See sketch of his life, p. 113.

GEORGE ALLEN.

as born in Milton, Vt., December 17, 1808, and died
s., May 28, 1876. He was graduated at the Univer-
1827, studied law, and was admitted to practice in
ly he studied theology, and from 1834 to 1837 was
opal church at St. Albans, Vt. In 1837 he became
t languages in Delaware College. The University
lected him professor of ancient languages in 1845,
of Greek alone. In 1847 he became a Roman Cath-
published a "Life of Philidor," the chess-player, in
).[1]

JOHN ADDISON PORTER.

Porter (1822–1866), a native of New York, was grad-
in 1842, and called to Delaware College in 1844, as
came professor of rhetoric. He went abroad in 1847,
ree years at Giessen, under Liebig. Then he served
e Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard for a few
50 was called to the chair of chemistry applied to the
versity. Two years later he was made professor of
(now Sheffield) Scientific School, and from 1856 till
1864 had charge of the department of organic chem-
d a daughter of Joseph E. Sheffield, and exerted a
securing from the latter the famous donation to the
hich bears his name. Prof. Porter was a member of
ieties, and contributed various papers to the "Amer-
ience." He established the "Connecticut War Rec-
d "Principles of Chemistry" (1856); "First Book of
ied Sciences" (1857), and "Selections from the Kale-
nnish Epic" (1868). The John A. Porter university
he best essay on any subject was established in his
1871, by the Scroll and Key Society, which he founded

EBEN NORTON HORSFORD.

orsford was born at Moscow, N. Y., July 27, 1818.
d as civil engineer from Rensselaer Polytechnic
and then assisted in the geological survey of New
to 1844 he taught mathematics and natural sciences
nale Academy. He was appointed lecturer in chem-
College about 1843, at a salary of $200 a year, and
three times, and for six weeks only on each occasion.
or two years at Giessen under Liebig, and in 1847
Rumford professorship of science applied to the arts
nbmitted to Abbott Lawrence somewhat later a plan

[1] pleton's Cyclopædia of American Biography.

which led to the formation of the Lawrence Scientific School at Cambridge. After sixteen years of service in the school he resigned to engage in the manufacture of chemicals. The latter work has led to discoveries relating to the preparation of white bread and the restoration of phosphates that are lost with the bran in milling. "Acid phosphate," which has carried Horsford's name around the globe, is also one of his manufactures. In 1873 he was appointed one of the Government commissioners at the Vienna Exposition, and three years later was a juror at our Centennial exhibition. He has of late years shown a keen interest in Wellesley College, and has provided for the endowment of its library, for scientific apparatus, and for pensions to the faculty. In 1843 he received the degree of A. M. from Union College; in 1847 from Harvard the same degree, and from the medical college in Castleton the degree of M. D. He has been a frequent contributor to scientific journals since 1846, and in 1873 wrote a Government report on "Hungarian milling and the Vienna bread." His latest contributions have been to language and history. "Indian names of Boston," the first contribution, was followed by "Discovery of America by Northmen," "On the landfall of John Cabot in 1497, and the site of Norumbega," and "The problem of the Northmen."[1] He is engaged in an attempt to refute Justin Winsor's opinion that "though Scandinavians may have reached the shores of Labrador, the soil of the United States has not one vestige of their presence."[2]

Prof. Horsford proved himself at Delaware College a born teacher. He understood and sympathized with the boys, and even participated in their sports. Through his efforts a gymnasium was fitted up. His methods supplied material for thought and aroused a spirit of original research. For formal examinations he cared little, and substituted instead student lectures before popular audiences, composed of the villagers. He had the true spirit of university extension, for at the end of a lecture he would say to the class, "I have explained it to you; now you go and tell it to others."[3]

CHARACTER OF THE WORK, 1840 TO 1847.

May 17, 1841, the following order of recitations was adopted:

Class.	6 A. M.	11 A. M.	5 P. M.
Seniors	Prof. Norton	President Gilbert	Prof. Allen.
Juniors	President Gilbert	Prof. Allen	Prof. Norton.
Sophomores	Prof. Allen	Mr. Warner	Mr. Bell.
Freshmen	Mr. Warner	Mr. Bell	Mr. Warner.

[1] This sketch of his life was prepared from Appleton's Ency. (Art. on Horsford) and a letter from Prof. Horsford. His character as a teacher was learned from ex-President William H. Purnell.

[2] Winsor's Narrative and Critical History of America, I, 98.

[3] Professor Horsford died January 1, 1893.

it did not become popular, and before the end of the
re changed to 7 a. m., 11 a. m., and 3:30 p. m.
rt, in the first report, during his second term, to the
the success which he had experienced in winning
various ecclesiastical bodies, "notwithstanding the
times." He declares the prospects to be encourag-
xpects from seventy-five to one hundred students
of 1841–'42. This accession was followed by an
any lines. The following innovations were made:
were required to join the class in history.
s were required once in two weeks from all but the

s were required to declaim in the oratory, three on
each Friday evening, beginning with the seniors and
abetical order.
lectures by the senior members of the faculty was
course was to be delivered before the students by the
blic course of ten lectures on "English literature"
which an admission fee was to be charged. Another
iven on astronomy.
the academy, William S. Graham, in 1841 claimed
lance with the charter, to a seat in the faculty. His
d, and the principal of the academy was henceforth
faculty. Dr. Gilbert's second term may truly be
ge in the history of Delaware College, because of
of the work done, the high tone of the students, the
f the college, and the presence within its walls of
Gilbert, Allen, Norton, and Horsford. The attend-
s much greater during the next decade.
ark College" was changed to "Delaware College" by
ril 4, 1843, when the college was in a flourishing con-
ime, the majority of the students were from other
are, a proof of its excellent reputation. Of these,
e of her situation, was in the lead, closely followed,
nsylvania and Virginia. New Jersey, District of
Carolina, Tennessee, Massachusetts, and Vermont
entatives each. Even the Island of Cuba contributed
ltimore appears to have had so much love for the
e at one time placed as many as 40 of her boys with-
classical students had caste. Others were scarcely
nts. Merit was the only road to preferment and noth-
reparation insured a student admission to the colle-
In 1841 there was an earnest discussion by the
her certain men should be admitted into the fresh-
ere "deficient in some of the preparatory studies
ssion to college." By a close vote it was decided

affirmatively "on condition of their maintaining a good standing in the same." That the curriculum was faithfully carried out may be gathered also from the following instance: According to the faculty minutes of November 5, 1841, the request of two juniors to be excused from studying calculus "with the junior class" was granted "on condition of their 'bringing up' the mathematics of the previous college course." It was at the same time emphatically asserted that no precedent was furnished by their action, to which appeals of a like nature could in the future be made. This appears to have been the first instance of a departure from the established course in mathematics, and this was not permitted to become a precedent for appeal. Earnest efforts were made to keep in the front ranks of higher education. A committee was appointed in 1841 to examine the systems of pronunciation in the Greek and Latin languages used by the best literary institutions and to make a report thereon, in order that the best uniform system might be adopted in Delaware College.

But the seeds of the downfall of Delaware College were sown in the very climax of her prosperity. To operate a college without funds is a task before which even Hercules would have quailed. With no income, except the balance, constantly diminishing, of the State fund and the small amount derived from the tuition fees, the days of the college were numbered unless generous friends would come to her relief. None came and a reduction of expenses was necessary. The first blow was struck, as is usually the case, at the salaries of the members of the faculty. The president's salary was reduced temporarily in 1843, but in 1844 was again raised to $1,300, while the professors received but $800 and the tutors $405 per annum. July 17, 1844, a committee was appointed "to make application for the 'Regium Donum' of the late king of Great Britain."

The college agent in Virginia was instructed on November 30, 1845, to endeavor to secure scholarships at $1,500, leaving to the founder the right to name the scholarship and to designate the manner in which the incumbent should be chosen.

After 1845 orations at commencement were given only to those whose marks entitled them to stand in the first grade. The student of highest standing delivered the valedictory, the next in rank the Latin salutatory, and all others in the first grade general orations. The standing was determined solely by the recitation and examination marks.

The refectory was abolished in 1843, and thereafter the boys boarded with private families in the town. The general good order which prevailed during this period was due in a large measure to the refining influences which were thrown around the boys in their boarding houses. The social intercourse with ladies operated as does coeducation under normal circumstances.

cond resignation seems to have been caused by a feel-
ees and other friends of the college were lacking in
to its welfare. Some of the trustees, on the other
at Dr. Gilbert had not fully redeemed his pledge to
patronage. The grip which Princeton at that time
patronage had been ignored. There were some who
ed to see Delaware College speedily take rank among
Whatever the causes, it is certain that the matter
onsideration for some time, and that in March, 1847,
r of resignation which was offered and accepted July

the college were at this time confident that the slow
due to its location and sectarian management. One
ed writer, wrote a series of letters in 1847 to the Del-
nder the *nom de plume* of "A Friend to Education,"
ibes the condition and suggests remedies. "Delaware
stands can be compared to the last flickering of an
showing momentary evidences of life." He asserts
re State bonus to Delaware college" is minus $160,000.
e American Literary and Military Institute, to be
University, was proposed. Newark was to be aban-
nitable, says he, for "a monastery, a friary, or a nun-
a college;" and the new university was to be estab-
ton. This step would free the college from sectarianism,
of a university, and win for it the confidence of the

THIRD PRESIDENT, JAMES P. WILSON.

on was elected president of Delaware College in 1847,
the acceptance of the resignation of his predecessor.
of James Patriot Wilson, D. D., a prominent clergy-
byterian church and the grandson of Rev. Matthew
Lewes. He was president of Delaware College until
, when he resigned and accepted the presidency of
l Seminary, New York. Later in life he was pastor
church at Newark, N. J., where he died a few years

dent had the admiration and confidence of all who
e usefulness of his administration and the prosperity
re sadly hampered by an unfortunate wrangle in the
ison became discouraged and resigned his office.
that time consisted of the president, Profs. Norton,
raham, Wallace, and Horsford. The trouble was pre-
rmon which Prof. Wallace preached in the Newark

[1] Penna. Mag. Hist., VIII, 50.

Presbyterian Church. The other professors claimed that he had made unjust reflections upon them, and in the next faculty meeting they not only expressed their indignation, but protested against his being allowed to conduct religious exercises at which students were present. Prof. Wallace denied the charges point-blank, but this did not end the matter. The trustees were at last compelled to interfere; two of the professors resigned, and the resignation of a third was requested. There was much sympathy with the professor of languages,[1] who was compelled by the action of the board to withdraw from the institution. Moreover, the welfare of the college was seriously impaired.

THE FOURTH PRESIDENT, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS NORTON.

William Augustus Norton (1810–1883), the learned mathematician, succeeded President Wilson, but, finding the executive duties uncongenial to his scholarly tastes, he resigned a few months later, on August 19, 1850. A native of New York, he was graduated from the United States Military Academy in 1831. He was assistant professor of natural and experimental philosophy in that institution for two years and during that time, in 1832, served in the Black Hawk expedition. He resigned his commission in the army September 30, 1833, to accept the professorship of natural philosophy and astronomy in the University of the City of New York, which he held until he was called, in 1839, to a similar position in Newark College. Upon retiring from the presidency in 1850 he was elected professor of natural philosophy and civil engineering in Brown University, and two years later accepted the chair of civil engineering in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale, which he held until his death in 1883. The University of Vermont gave him the degree of A. M. in 1842. He made scientific researches into molecular physics, terrestrial magnetism, and astronomical physics, and published his results in the "American Journal of Science," or read them before the American Association for the Advancement of Science or the National Academy of Sciences. Of the latter he was elected a member in 1873. He published "An Elementary Treatise on Astronomy" (New York, 1839) and "First Book of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy" (1858). Noah Porter said of him: "Norton was eminently a liberal student, and kept himself fully abreast of the speculations and science of the times."[2]

THE FIFTH PRESIDENT, REV. MATTHEW MEIGS.

Rev. Matthew Meigs, principal of the academy, acted as president from August, 1850, to April, 1851. A resolution to reorganize the college and its curriculum was adopted about this time. A new charter was obtained on February 10, 1851, which reiterated the salient points

[1] I have not discovered who this professor was.

[2] Appleton's Cyclopedia, article on Norton.

833 and provided, among other things, for a "normal with the college for the preparation of teachers." f this school was to be conferred the degree of "mas- ng." It also provided for the imposition of a fine of who knowingly sold intoxicating liquors within two College to students of the college. At the same sea- ure the trustees were authorized to establish in con- llege a "scientific school" for such students as might ue the regular collegiate course. This was accord- the next administration and many availed themselves

formulated to secure by means of the sale of scholar- nt of $50,000 for the support of the institution. Rev. as elected to the chair of mathematics and authorized gent of the college. The college fund in 1851, accord- of the treasurer, was $21,930, an insecure financial to operate a college successfully.[1]

THE SCHOLARSHIP PLAN OF 1851-52.

plan provided for the sale of transferable scholar- until the sum of $50,000 had been realized, after s to cease for five years. The originators doubtless st interests of the college; indeed, they could hardly other plan which would have brought into the a sum sufficient to continue the operations of the col- me the chief cause of the closure eight years later. rships filled the college with students and for a short funds for its operations. As a permanent financial ever, extremely unwise, because it reduced the price st a nominal sum and allowed several students to me scholarship. The tuition fee was the chief source, , from which the college derived its sustenance. In e scholarships were sold and the money derived from , while the number of students, nearly all of whom continued to increase, so that there were at one time ose tuition for the most part had been paid some

nt Newlin traveled through the State and made the ments, as he reported to the trustees, with holders of

ed to the college the scholarships which they held.
ressed a willingness to sell their scholarships to the board at

d to release the academy from receiving students on scholar-

ed to send but one student at a time.

[1] Newark, Past and Present, 45.

The board of trustees then authorized the president to secure on the best possible terms the release of the institution from receiving more students upon scholarships. It appears that certain persons had been purchasing scholarships from the original holders at reduced rates. The board therefore requested the original holders to make no disposition of scholarships except to the president of the college.

No material benefit resulted from this surface treatment of a bad case. The students increased in number, the income of the college rapidly failed, until July 6, 1858, when the assets of the institution amounted to $5,000; its liabilities, to $1,752.27. Vain were all the efforts of the trustees to buoy up the college. The number of students, diminished probably by the excitement attending the death of John Edward Roach (March 30, 1858), added to the discouragement, and on the 18th of January, 1859, it was decided to close the college. On the 30th day of March, 1859, the instructors were released from their duties and the doors were formally closed. Although there existed local ailments, to which many people attributed the closure of the college, the writer is convinced that the failure of funds and the adoption of the fatal scholarship plan closed its doors.

THE SIXTH PRESIDENT, REV. WALTER S. F. GRAHAM.

Rev. Walter S. F. Graham was elected to succeed President Meigs on April 7, 1851. A man of genial temper, attractive manners, and abundant tact, he discharged the duties of his office with credit. His health, however, was infirm, and after a long and heroic struggle with disease he died in the early part of 1854.

The Rev. W. S. F. Graham accepted the presidency on the following terms:

(1) He was to conduct the college upon his own responsibility under the existing schedule, with the addition of a scientific course, and was also to be principal of the academy.

(2) He was to employ the faculty and to pay their salaries from his own resources.

(3) The trustees were to place at his disposal the unlimited use of the college and academy buildings.

(4) The balance after the payment of all expenses was to go to the president.

(5) If the Rev. I. W. K. Handy did not accept the professorship of mathematics and the financial agency of the college, the president was to carry out alone, as far as possible, the scholarship plan.

The course in civil engineering and in agriculture met the popular demands for practical education.

Dr. Thomas B. Wilson presented to the college about this time a cabinet of natural history, consisting of 2,800 specimens. To this may be added the State cabinet transferred to the college by act of the legisla-

r of students increased so rapidly that shortly before 85 were enrolled, of whom 90 were collegiate and 95 .[1]

FACULTY, 1854.

aham, president; Daniel Kirkwood, professor of math- nomy; Wm. L. Boswell, professor of Greek and Latin; professor of chemistry and mineralogy; Edward D. f natural philosophy and civil engineering; Talley- essor of rhetoric and modern languages; S. S. Hal- f geology, agriculture, and natural history; Wm. A. r of moral philosophy.

NTH PRESIDENT, DANIEL KIRKWOOD, LL. D.

kwood was elected to succeed President Graham. at early period of his career an astronomer of wide position soon became uncongenial to him because of y and retiring disposition and, at his suggestion, in was appointed to communicate with Rev. William l offer him the presidency. Dr. Patton, however, afterwards Dr. Kirkwood accepted a call to the chair mathematics in Indiana University, and on October ed the presidency of Delaware College.

d was born in Bradenbaugh, Md., September 27, 1814. in York County Academy, Pennsylvania, and subse- is life to educational pursuits. He became principal Pa., High School in 1843, and of Pottsville Academy In 1851 he was made professor of mathematics in and in 1854 was elected president of that institution, lices until 1856. He was then called to the Indiana n years later succeeded to a similar chair in Wash- son College, Pennsylvania. In 1867 he was recalled sity, where he still remains. He received the degree shington College, Pennsylvania, in 1850, and LL. D. ty of Pennsylvania in 1852.

is a member of various scientific societies, and in a member of the American Philosophical Society. tions to scientific literature have been published in f societies of which he is a member, and in "the

erpt from a State paper of that time will show the interesting ating exercises in 1854: "The speakers all acquitted themselves position was good, the delivery excellent, and the manner in their oratorical gestures showed that they were well skilled the art. * * * It was remarked by the orator of Wednes- ded many commencements, but never saw any to excel this in

Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society," "The American Journal of Science," "The Siderial Messenger," and other journals. Among these have been "Analogy between the Periods of Rotation of the Primary Planets" (1849); "Theory of Jupiter's Influence in the Formation of Gaps in the Zone of Minor Planets" (1866); and "Physical Explanation of the Intervals in Saturn's Rings" (1867). He has also published in book form "Meteoric Astronomy" (Philadelphia, 1867); "Comets and Meteors" (1873); and "The Asteroids or Minor Planets between Mars and Jupiter" (1887).

Under the administration of Dr. Kirkwood the college reached the highest point, as regards the number of students, in its history. During the scholastic year 1855–'56, 209 students were enrolled, of whom 87 were collegiate and 122 academic students.

The funds were almost exhausted, however, and there were no resources from which to render to the instructors a fair compensation for their services. The president received $1,200, the professor of English literature $600, and the other professors $800 each.

In 1855 the governor of the State was made a member *ex officio* of the board of trustees, and has continued such to this day.

THE EIGHTH PRESIDENT, REV. E. J. NEWLIN.

President Kirkwood was succeeded by the Rev. E. J. Newlin, of Alexandria, Va. The choice appears in many respects to have been an unfortunate one. Although the new president admirably represented on the platform the dignity of his position, he never succeeded either in winning the confidence of the students or in uniting the much-discouraged and inharmonious faculty. But to attribute to him the cause of the closure of the college would be a great injustice. His only relation thereto was of time. The institution would have closed inevitably under any administration whatever; for the trustees were becoming less willing to assume the responsibility of its continuation with no prospect of an endowment.

The homicide of John Edward Roach, to which popular sentiment attributes the closure, had no further connection with it than did the presidency of Rev. E. J. Newlin. It is even doubtful if the murder visibly hastened the closure. The popular mind committed the logical fallacy of false cause—"Post hoc ergo propter hoc."

THE HOMICIDE OF JOHN EDWARD ROACH.

The saddest day in the annals of the college and the town was March 30, 1858.[1] The annual exhibition of the junior and sophomore classes

[1] The sources of this sketch are Newark, Delaware, Past and Present, 45–52, which gives an account, condensed from a nearly verbatim report of the evidence offered in court; The Baltimore Sun for April, 1858; Interviews with George G. Evans, esq., the present efficient secretary and treasurer of the board of trustees, and many other reliable persons qualified to testify.

n the college oratory that evening, and John Edward hosen to deliver an oration. He was a modest, sensi- bout 19 years of age, from Somerset county, Maryland, lly beloved where he was known for his amiability conduct." The members of the other classes, accord- d prepared sham programmes, ridiculing the perform- e among the audience. This custom, originally of an sing nature, had of late years developed into a medium unsuccessful effort had been made by the faculty to eport, perhaps exaggerated, of the virulent character rammes reached the ears of Roach and his friends, ned to suppress or destroy them. On the fatal Tues- udents who boarded at different places in the village committee organized to destroy the programmes broke Samuel M. Harrington,[1] and found the objects of their nk. Seizing them they hastened into Anthony Hig- were busily thrusting the offensive papers into the n the rival factions, led by Roach and Harrington, om. A general mêlée ensued. The burning programmes of the stove. The carpet took fire and the room filled rrington, on his knees, was trying to collect the scat- ach, in the effort to prevent him, had seized his hand. saac H. Weaver was seen through the smoke advanc- vo, and instantly Roach received a stab in the neck. Weaver rushed out, a scowl on his face, and was fol- dazed and bleeding profusely. Roach staggered to out upon the portico, and sat down upon the door sill; ker from loss of blood, he sank back, with body inside gs upon the portico. In a moment Dr. Couper, one was by his side—for the board was in session not ten ly striving to stay the torrent of blood and to take tery. Stimulants brought a momentary revival, but Roach expired, without regaining sufficient conscious- last words trustworthy testimony at the trial.[2]

oach? He had no enemies; moreover college students tive assassins. In the mob bent upon saving the pro-

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gton was the eldest son of Chancellor S. M. Harrington, one of his time in the State. He was admitted to the bar in 1861, at he became deputy attorney-general, and in 1872 was unani- solicitor of Wilmington. He easily forced his way to the front died in 1878 at the early age of 38. He was one of the most ver in the State. (Scharf., Art. on Harrington.)

an eminent lawyer of Wilmington, Del., is the first Republican United States Senate from Delaware. He succeeded the late term expired March 4, 1889.

e uttered the name "Harrington" in reply to a question as to at the physicians were not satisfied that he was fully conscious, evidence was, therefore, doubtful.

grammes was Isaac H. Weaver, but before reaching Higgins's room he turned aside and secured from his own room a dirk knife. Drawing it partly from the sheath he was seen rushing to the fray. A moment later he hurried back to his room, with the dirk concealed under his coat, and noticing that it had been seen, he said "Say nothing about it." Then he summoned Dr. R. G. Hudders from the village drug store, and learning from him that Roach's death was imminent, exclaimed, "My God, can't you do something for him." Hudders asked him who did it. The answer was, "I did it" or "I believe I did it." "You'll find my knife in my trunk," he continued; "go up and get it." Meanwhile intelligence had been conveyed to Mr. Rathmell Wilson, one of the trustees, that Weaver had been seen with a dirk. In company with George G. Evans, esq., Mr. Wilson went to Weaver's room and in his open portmanteau found the dirk and the bloodstained sheath, into which it had been thrust. These were handed over to the officers of the law; and I. H. Weaver, T. B. Giles, and S. M. Harrington were arrested. After the preliminary hearing on April 5 and 6, Giles and Harrington were discharged, but Weaver was remanded to prison for trial, the testimony pointing to him as the perpetrator of the homicide. He told Benesole, the constable, just after his arrest, that he did not know who did it; that he "knew neither Harrington nor Giles did it;" that "the knife was his, but he dropped it at the door and afterward picked it up again;" he added emphatically, "whoever did it, didn't intend to kill Roach."

Weaver was indicted for murder in the first degree at the next term of the court of oyer and terminer. A lengthy trial ensued, in which he was ably defended by David Paul Brown, esq., of Philadelphia, and George B. Rodney, esq., of Delaware; and was prosecuted by Attorney-General George P. Fisher and W. C. Spruance, esq., acting for the State. Although to many the circumstantial evidence seemed conclusive, the jury could not agree—since no one had seen the stabbing—that Weaver was guilty without the shadow of a doubt. Therefore they acquitted him.

Testimony was elicited after the trial which would probably have convicted Weaver. George G. Evans, esq., says that on the night of the homicide Weaver, frenzied with remorse, did not return to his room in the college, but remained with a friend in the village, to whom he confessed his guilt. His confession, coupled with the strong circumstantial evidence, leaves but little room to doubt that he perpetrated the homicide.

It is a strange coincidence that a few years later Weaver was injured in an explosion near Baltimore, and like his victim, died from the severing of the carotid artery.

Such are the facts concerning one of the most woeful tragedies in the history of American education. The presentation of these facts so many years after the principals in the tragedy have been gathered to

t, at least, to acquit forever students who later won
fidence of their native State and prominence in the
Nor is it less important to dissipate the still popular
death of Roach closed the doors of a college then
count and consequently near the brink of ruin. But,
ver too late to revise distorted public opinion.
seek the cause of this horrid event? In that college
able when uncontrolled by legal authority or by
ment, and which the boasted culture and elevated
of this age have not yet restrained within proper
nain, however, a few institutions like the Johns Hop-
in which college spirit has never run wild; a few
y of Wisconsin, which have arisen in outraged inno-
from the bar of justice a legal condemnation of an
which claims for college students license for lawless-
y from the legal consequences which flow from an
ip and from an attack, even though made within col-
hose cardinal principles which society has wrought
f infinite toil and patience.

THE PERIOD OF SUSPENSION.

the college on March 30, 1859,[1] was followed by the
which so completely absorbed the attention of the vil-
rder between the North and the South and conse-
n political sentiments, that the suspended college
consideration from its friends and disappeared from
ablic. The torch of hope still burned, however, and
of the board of trustees were held, at which plans for
ge were discussed. But nothing practical resulted,
f six years and four months no meeting of the trus-

e step toward reorganization was taken February 19,
ard of trustees adopted resolutions asking the legis-
ze the institution with an agricultural department,
State might avail itself of the Congressional land
he chief provisions of this land act are as follows:

ss of the United States passed an act donating to the several
the public lands, or an equivalent of land scrip, for each of
and Senators. Delaware, having two Senators and one Repre-
d to 90,000 acres of land or the scrip equivalent. The object
o enable the States to establish agricultural colleges, wherein,
assical and other scientific studies, and including military tac-
se should be to teach such branches as are related to agriculture

-five years (1834-59) of its existence 454 students were enrolled

and the mechanic arts, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life. The funds arising from the sale of land scrip were to be invested in State, United States, or some other safe stocks, at not less than 5 per cent interest, and the money so invested should constitute a perpetual fund, the capital of which should remain forever undiminished. To make the grant available the previous assent of the legislature was required.[1]

This assent was not given, however, until March 14, 1867. The cause of the delay was probably the want of suitable buildings for college purposes and the straitened financial condition of the State.

The trustees now saw that there would be a bright future for the institution if it could be placed under the control of the State and made distinctively a State college. "The trustees therefore proposed to convey to the State a joint and equal interest in the grounds, buildings, libraries, apparatus, and vested funds, on condition that the State should vest that income to be derived from the sale of land in a board of trustees, not more than half of whom should be representatives of the State, to be appointed by the governor, and the other half representatives of the original corporation. It was thus proposed to meet the requirements of the act of Congress by enabling the State to provide the buildings, ground, and appliances necessary to carry out its objects."[1] The legislature accepted the proposition of the trustees and Delaware College became the beneficiary under the act of Congress of 1862.

REORGANIZATION AS A STATE COLLEGE.[2]

The college was reincorporated in 1869 by the legislature under a new charter whose chief provisions were as follows: The board of trustees was to consist of thirty members, one-half of whom were to be appointed by the governor of the State, the other half to represent the old board, which is self-perpetuating. One undivided half of the buildings and grounds was to become the property of the State. The governor was to be *ex officio* a member of the board. The members of the general assembly were to distribute for the State thirty free scholarships to worthy applicants, ten to each county (one to each hundred); the appointee to be exempt from the payment of tuition fees. The institution should never be conducted in the interests of any party, sect, or denomination.

The new board organized January 22, 1869, and elected Rathmell Wilson president, John Hickman vice-president, and George G. Evans secretary and treasurer.

ACTS OF THE LEGISLATURE (1870 TO 1889).

1871.—The professor of chemistry became *ex-officio* State chemist. The number of State students was limited to ten from each county and the requirement that they be appointed annually was struck out. Later

[1] Scharf, I, 449; Laws of Delaware, XIII, 127.
[2] Report of U. S. Bureau of Education for 1867-68, 143.

ar an act was passed compelling the transfer to the
of all funds arising from the sale of land scrip, and the
rected to issue to the president of the college, upon his
arms, equipments, and military stores belonging to the
e required from time to time for the purpose of instruc-
tactics.

annually for two years were appropriated to the college
rmal department. The department did not prove suc-
ppropriation was not renewed.

esident was made *ex-officio* president of the State board

l bonds, 83 in number, amounting to $83,000, were can-
ir place a certificate of permanent indebtedness bear-
5 per cent was issued for that sum to the president of
stees.

were appropriated to enlarge the college oratory,
ional laboratories, and to make whatever other im-
e needed.

TH PRESIDENT, WILLIAM H. PURNELL, LL. D.

William H. Purnell was chosen to preside over the
e.

ll upon shoulders eminently worthy to wear it. A
college, he had closely identified himself with its inter-
career, having served as trustee before its suspension.
st official duty as trustee was to bury his alma mater,
active in her resurrection.

urnell was born in Worcester County, Md., and was
Delaware College in 1846 in the palmy days of the
ration. In 1848 he began the practice of law in Mary-
50, without his solicitation, was appointed prosecut-
Worcester County. Three years later he became State's
55, he was elected comptroller of the State treasury;
elected, defeating Bradley T. Johnson, the rival candi-
e was nominated by acclamation and again elected to

ent Lincoln, by the advice of Governor Hicks, Mont-
stmaster-General, and Henry Winter Davis, appointed
f Baltimore. A staunch Union man, he, after the first
tun, raised a regiment of infantry, two companies of
rds increased to three, and two batteries of artillery.
in person with the rank of colonel, but after six months'
ed to the post office and there remained until August,
ppointed assessor of internal revenue in 1867 for the
altimore. He practiced law in Baltimore from 1868 to
accepted the presidency of Delaware College. After

his retirement in 1885 he took charge of a ladies' seminary at Frederick, Md., where he still resides. In 1874 he received the degree of LL. D. from Indiana University.[1]

He brought to his new position a well-stored and well-trained mind; a happy and peculiarly irresistible method of disciplining boys; a sympathy with the boy nature that enabled him to avoid many of the breakers upon which colleges have been wrecked; a magnetism which inspired students to the best work; and a clearness of thought and a readiness of speech that always made him master of the situation. In the words of a Newark divine, "He is an all-round man." Such a man the new State institution badly needed.

The college opened in 1870 with 22 students, which number was increased during the term to 29. The new president favored coeducation and was influential in securing, in 1872, the admission of women to the college. He rendered valuable services to the State by assisting in the creation of a public sentiment favorable to the public-school law of 1875, and by aiding the first superintendent of free schools, James H. Groves, to reduce to order the chaos which greeted the latter upon his accession to office. He assisted also in the organization of "teachers' institutes," and no figure more frequently adorned the rostrum or was greeted by the teachers with louder applause than that of the first president of Delaware College after its reorganization.

The law of 1875 made him *ex-officio* president of the State board of education, in which capacity he exercised a great influence in shaping the public-school system.

The whole number of students graduated under Dr. Purnell's administration (1870 to 1884 inclusive) was 100. Of these 25 were classical, 36 scientific, 33 literary, and 6 normal.

No material change was made in the old curriculum. The agricultural course, which had formerly been a part of the scientific course, and the literary course, which was designed to meet the needs of coeducation, were organized. The abolition of coeducation followed close upon Dr. Purnell's resignation.

In June, 1885, Dr. Purnell tendered his resignation as president of the college and John H. Caldwell, D. D., was elected to succeed him.

Up to Dr. Purnell's accession to the presidency—strictly speaking from 1834 to 1859—454 students had been enrolled and 126 graduated.

FACULTY, 1872.

William H. Purnell, A. M., president, and professor of mental, moral, and political science; Edward D. Porter, A. M., professor of agriculture, mathematics, and civil engineering; William D. Mackey, A. M., professor of ancient languages and classical literature; Theodore R. Wolf, PH. D. (Heidelberg), professor of chemistry, geology, mineralogy, and natural history; Jules Macheret, A. M., professor of modern languages

[1] Catalogue of Delta Phi Literary Society, 16.

nce; Henry Schoenherr, instructor in German; Stiles lecturer on anatomy, physiology, and hygiene; James , tutor in mathematics and assistant in the laboratory; , instructor in vocal and instrumental music; J. N. t librarian.

ENTH PRESIDENT, JOHN H. CALDWELL, D. D.

vell, D. D., was elected president July 13, 1885, and in ptember assumed office.

ident was born at Spartanburg, S. C., June 4, 1820, s old removed into Georgia, where he was brought up. l at the academy in Gainesville, Ga., which was at that the University of Georgia. In 1841 he studied law, t for the ministry in the Methodist Episcopal Church. 53 he filled various appointments in the Georgia con- 4 he founded and established Andrew Female College, flourishing institution. From 1858 to 1865 he filled ments in the Southern Methodist Episcopal Church. as a member of the constitutional convention which in the reconstruction acts adopted by Congress. In he served as chairman of the committee on education r of the committee of eight appointed to revise and itution. He was a member of the State legislature 0, and was then appointed judge of the district court, held until 1872. Then he moved North and joined conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. He Still Pond, Md., for three years; at Dover for three ul's Church, Wilmington, for three years; and at Dover n of three years. In 1884 he was made presiding elder ct, and in 1885 elected president *pro tempore* of the ference. He was a member of the general conference go, and again in 1884 at Philadelphia; in 1876 and in served delegate. Emory College conferred upon him M. in 1854 and Dickinson College the degree of D. D. in ving as president of Delaware College from September, 1888, he resumed the ministerial work and was ap- erica, Del.[1]

although a man of unchallenged ability, was well ars when he assumed the presidency of the college. s rendered doubly trying by the fact that, as a promi- preacher he was expected to draw students from that patronized the college but little. His earnest, consci- s to fill the college with students won the admiration But it was apparent from the first that the trustees had

[1] lwell kindly furnished the facts for the above sketch.

erred in electing to the presidency of a State college a preacher and a man not then in the educational current.

At the outset Dr. Caldwell failed to win certain members of the faculty to his methods. Consequently a long and bitter antagonism developed, which well-nigh overthrew discipline in the institution. Good government could scarcely be expected in a college where—to quote a student of that time—"The president and the faculty always pulled against each other."

The threatening storm broke upon the college March 22, 1887, when the president made a statement to the trustees, which he reiterated April 6, concerning his relations with certain members of the faculty. The members designated stated in reply their view of the case; and the trustees immediately resolved "that there has been no intentional wrong on either side, but that there has a been a lack of attention to the rules and by-laws of the college, and that this has caused a little dissatisfaction." They also impressed upon the president and faculty the necessity of harmony. This, however, did not end the trouble, and on June 14, 1887, the trustees requested the president and professors to resign. The resignations were immediately tendered, but on July 7 the consideration of the president's resignation was postponed until March, 1888, and the resignations of the professors until June, 1888. On March 27, 1888, the president's resignation was accepted, he having previously informed the board that the bishop of his church had appointed him to take charge of the Methodist Episcopal Church at Frederica, and that he would certainly sever his connection with the college at the close of the term. The resignation took immediate effect and Dr. Lewis P. Bush, a trustee, was elected president *pro tempore*. The balance of the faculty were retained.[1]

THE ELEVENTH PRESIDENT, ALBERT N. RAUB, PH. D.

Albert N. Raub, PH. D., was elected president of Delaware College June 19, 1888. He is a man of good administrative ability, tact, long experience in educational work, and unlimited capacity for hard work. During his administration important additions have been made to the college. An agricultural experiment station, a gymnasium, a wood-working shop, a machine shop, a greenhouse, and a new recitation hall (97 by 50 feet) have been erected. Departments in agriculture, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, and civil engineering have been established. Grounds for athletics and for horticultural experiments have been purchased. Free scholarships can now be obtained by all students from Delaware. Instruction in military tactics has been secured by the appointment of an officer of the U. S. Army to a position in the faculty.

[1] This sketch of President Caldwell's administration has been prepared from the minutes of the trustees and the faculty.

aub was born in Lancaster County, Pa., March 28, nated in the scientific course of the State Normal School Pa., in 1860, and until 1866 engaged with much suc- school work in the State. Then he was called to the h literature, rhetoric, and English grammar in the State at Kutztown, Pa. He became principal of the Lock chools in 1868, and it was chiefly due to his efforts that school, of which he was chosen principal, was opened n years later. At the end of seven years, when Dr. is connection with the school, it had sent out 310 grad- principal of Newark Academy from 1885 to 1890.

r. Raub has spent many weeks of each year in lectur- ers' institutes in various States of the Union, and few rs are to-day more popular and successful. Princeton him in 1866 the honorary degree of A. M., and from ge he received in 1879 the honorary degree of PH. D.

e widely known as a writer of educational text-books, llowing is a list: "Plain Educational Talks with Teach- ," published in 1869; a series of arithmetics and a series -'78; "Lessons in English and Practical English Gram- Studies in American and English Literature," and gement," 1882; "Methods of Teaching," 1883, and etoric," 1887. In January, 1885, he established the onal News, a sixteen-page journal, which he still edits t Philadelphia.

THE FACULTY, 1892.

ub, A. M., PH. D., president, professor of mental, moral, cience; Theodore R. Wolf, M. A., PH. D. (Heidelberg), emistry, mineralogy, and sanitary science; Frederick D. professor of botany and geology; George A. Harter, of mathematics and physics; Charles S. Conwell, A. Latin, Greek, and French; M. H. Beckwith, professor and entomology; Charles L. Penny, A. M., professor of Weibe, M. E., professor of mechanical and electrical rederic H. Robinson, C. E., professor of civil engineer- I. Bishop, B. S., professor of agriculture; H. B. Eves, or of veterinary science; Lieut. E. C. Brooks, Eighth U. fessor of military science and tactics and commandant

charge of a college which had suffered for want of entire history. His prospect was rendered brighter y of his predecessors by the establishment, in 1888, of experiment station. The college, including the experi- the recipient of benefits arising from the passage of of March 2, 1887, and the Morrill bill of 1890. The f the college is thereby raised to about $36,000, which

will increase somewhat each year. Of this, $15,000 goes directly to the experiment station.

The number of students was increased from 16, in the year immediately preceding his election, to 29 during his first year. In 1889–'90, 82 students were enrolled; in 1890–'91, 81 students; and 97 students in 1891–'92.

SALARIES SINCE THE REORGANIZATION.

Since the reorganization the following salaries have been paid to the faculty: In 1870 the president received $2,000; the professors received $1,000 each, except the professor of modern languages, who received $600. In 1873 the president received $2,250; in 1876, $1,800, and the professors each $1,000, except the professor of chemistry, who received nothing but his fees as State chemist. In 1886 the faculty were paid the interest on the vested fund of the college (except $380) on the basis of 16 to the president and 10 to the professors. The president accordingly received $1,775.48 and the professors each $1,049.18. Now the president receives an annual salary of $1,800; each of the professors, $1,250; and the director of the agricultural experiment station, $3,000.

CURRICULUM.

The requirements for admission into the Freshman class are as follows:

The applicant must be at least 14 years of age and of good character.

I. Into the classical course: Algebra through equations of the second degree, four books of geometry, Latin grammar, Latin reader, part I, Sallust, Cæsar or Virgil, Greek grammar, Greek reader, Xenophon's Anabasis (2 books).

II. Into the Latin-scientific course: The same as above, with the omission of Greek.

III. Into the course in modern languages and sciences: The same as above, with the additional omission of Latin.

IV. Courses in engineering and agriculture: The same as No. III.

COURSES OF INSTRUCTION.

1. *Classical course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts.*[1]

Freshman class.—First term: Rhetoric, 3; algebra, 5; Latin, 5; Greek, 5. Second term: Rhetoric, 3; algebra and geometry, 5; geometrical drawing, 2; Latin, 5; Greek, 5. Third term: Civics, 2; geometry, 5; geometrical drawing, 2; Latin, 5; Greek, 5.

Sophomore class.—First term: Ancient history, 2; English classics, 2; trigonometry and surveying, 4; Latin, 4; Greek, 4. Optional: mechanical drawing. Second term: Mediæval history, 2; study of words, 2; spherical trigonometry and conic sections, 4; Latin, 4; Greek, 4. Optional: Mechanical drawing. Third term: Modern history, 2; English literature, 2; analytical geometry, 4; Latin, 4; Greek, 4. Optional: Mechanical drawing.

Junior class.—First term: Psychology, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; higher algebra and analytical geometry, 3; physics, 2; Latin, 3; Greek, 3; German or French, 2. Second term: Psychology, 2; logic, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; differential calculus, 3; physics, 2; Latin, 3; Greek, 3; German or French, 2. Third term: Moral science, 2; logic, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; integral calculus, 3; physics, 2; Latin, 3; Greek, 3; German or French, 2.

Senior class.—First term: Natural theology, 2; political economy, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; integral calculus, 2; German or French, 2.

[1] The figures refer to the number of hours weekly.

; Greek, 2. Second term: Political economy, 2; chemical labora-
cience, 1; geology, 2; astronomy, 2; German or French, 2. Op-
nalogy, 2; Latin, 2; Greek, 2. Third term: International law or
, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; sanitary science, 1; astronomy, 2;
, 2. Optional: Latin, 2; Greek, 2.

n scientific course leading to the degree of bachelor of arts.

-First term: Rhetoric, 3; physiology, 3; zoölogy, 3; algebra, 5;
term: Rhetoric, 3; botany, 3; zoölogy, 3; algebra and geometry,
wing, 2; Latin, 5. Third term: Civics, 2; botany, 3; geometry,
wing, 2; Latin, 5.
—First term: Ancient history, 2; English classics, 2; inorganic
nical laboratory, 4; trigonometry and surveying, 4; mechanical
, 4; German or French, 2. Second term: Mediæval history, 2;
inorganic chemistry, 3; spherical trigonometry and conic sections,
architectural drawing, 2; Latin, 4; German or French, 2. Op-
aboratory. Third term: Modern history, 2; English literature,
istry, 3; analytical geometry, 4; mechanical and architectural
, 4; German or French, 2. Optional: Botanical laboratory.
rst term: Psychology, 2; organic chemistry, 3; mineralogy, 2;
analytical geometry, 3; physics, 2; Latin, 3; German or French,
mical laboratory, botany. Second term: Psychology, 2; logic,
try, 3; mineralogy, 2; differential calculus, 3; physics, 2; Latin,
nch, 2. Optional: Chemical laboratory, botany. Third term:
ogic, 2; organic chemistry, 3; mineralogy, 2; integral calculus, 3;
3; German or French, 2. Optional: Chemical laboratory, botany.
rst term: Natural theology, 2; political economy, 2; chemical
itary science, 1; geology, 2; integral calculus, 2; German or
al: Latin, 2; studies in civil engineering, 3. Second term: Polit-
emical laboratory, 3; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; astronomy,
ch, 2. Optional: Butler's Analogy, 2; Latin, 2; studies in civil
hird term: International or constitutional law, 2; chemical labo-
science, 1; astronomy, 2; German or French, 2. Optional: Latin,
engineering, 3.

n languages and sciences leading to the degree of bachelor of science.

-First term: Rhetoric, 3; physiology, 3; zoölogy, 3; algebra, 5;
, 2. Second term: Rhetoric, 3; botany, 3; zoölogy, 3; algebra
eometrical drawing, 2; German, 2; French, 2. Third term: Civ-
geometry, 5; geometrical drawing, 2; German 2; French, 2.
—First term: English classics, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; botan-
trigonometry and surveying, 4; mechanical drawing, 2; German,
tional: Ancient history. Second term: Study of words, 2; inor-
; botanical laboratory, 4; spherical trigonometry and conic sec-
l and architectural drawing, 2; German, 2; French, 2. Optional:
Third term: English literature, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; bo-
, 4; analytical geometry, 4; mechanical and architectural draw-
French, 2. Optional: Modern history.
rst term: Psychology, 2; organic chemistry, 3; chemical labora-
y, 2; higher algebra and analytical geometry, 3; physics, 2; Ger-
Optional: Botany. Second term: Psychology, 2; logic, 2; or-
; chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; differential calculus, 3;
, 2; French, 2. Optional: Botany. Third term: Moral science,
chemistry, 3; chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; integral
s, 2; German, 2; French, 2. Optional: Botany.

Senior class.—First term: Natural theology, 2; political economy, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; integral calculus, 2; German or French, 2. Optional: Studies in civil engineering. Second term: Political economy, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; astronomy, 2; German or French, 2. Optional: Butler's Analogy, studies in civil engineering. Third term: International or constitutional law, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; sanitary science, 1; astronomy, 2; German or French, 2. Optional: Studies in civil engineering.

4. *Course in civil engineering.*

Freshman class.—First term: Rhetoric, 3; physiology, 3; algebra, 5; lettering, 2; instrumental drawing, 2; German or French, 2; shop work and laboratory. Second term: Rhetoric, 3; botany, 3; algebra and geometry, 5; isometric drawing, 2; mechanical drawing, 2; steam engine, 2; German or French, 2; shop work and laboratory. Third term: Civics, 2; botany, 3; geometry, 5; perspective drawing, 2; mechanical drawing, 2; steam engine, 2; German or French, 2; shop work and laboratory.

Sophomore class.—First term: English classics, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; botanical laboratory, 4; plane trigonometry, 4; chain and compass surveying, 2; steam boilers, 2; free-hand drawing, 2; German or French, 2; field work in surveying. Second term: Study of words, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; spherical trigonometry and conic sections, 4; compass and transit surveying, 2; building construction, 2; descriptive geometry, 3; theoretical mechanics, 3; German or French, 2; plan and construction drawing. Optional: Botanical laboratory, 4. Third term: English literature, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; analytical geometry, 4; public lands and city surveys and leveling, 2; building construction, 2; theoretical mechanics, 3; German or French, 2; plan and construction drawing, field work. Optional: Botanical laboratory, 4.

Junior class.—First term: Psychology, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; physics, 2; higher algebra and analytical geometry, 3; topographical surveying, etc., 2; mechanics of materials, 3; German or French, 2; plan and construction drawing; field work. Optional: Organic chemistry. Second term: Psychology, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; physics, 2; differential calculus, 3; hydrographic and mine surveying, 2; mechanics of materials, 3; German or French, 2; plan and construction drawing. Optional: Organic chemistry. Third term: Chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; physics, 2; integral calculus, 3; geodetic surveying, 2; hydraulics, 3; German or French, 2; plan and construction drawing; field-work. Optional: Moral science, organic chemistry.

Senior class.—First term: Political economy, 2; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; roofs and bridges, 3; analytical mechanics, 2; masonry construction, 2; railroad location and construction, 3; drawing, field-work. Optional: Chemical laboratory. Second term: Political economy, 2; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; roofs and bridges, 3; masonry construction, 3; water supply and sewerage, 3; materials of construction, 3; drawing. Optional: Astronomy, 2; chemical laboratory. Third term: International or constitutional law, 2; sanitary science, 1; roofs and bridges, 3; engineering specifications and contracts, 3; materials of construction, 2; drawing; field work. Optional: Astronomy, 2; chemical laboratory.

5, 6. *Courses in mechanical and electrical engineering leading to the degree of bachelor of science.*[1]

Freshman class.—First term: Rhetoric, 3; physiology, 3; algebra, 5; lettering, 2; instrumental drawing, 2; German or French, 2; shop work and laboratory. Second term: Rhetoric, 3; algebra and geometry, 3; isometric drawing, 2; mechanical drawing, 2; anatomy of the steam engine, 2; German or French, 2; shop work and

[1] The first three years are common to both courses.

term: Civics, 2; geometry, 5; perspective drawing, 2; mechan-
atomy of the steam engine, 2; German or French, 2; shop work

First term: English classics, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; plane
am boilers, 2; free-hand drawing, 2; mechanical drawing, 1;
2; shop work and laboratory. Second term: Study of words,
try, 3; spherical trigonometry and conic sections, 4; descriptive
nics, 3; German or French, 2; shop work and laboratory. Third
ture, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; analytical geometry, 4; me-
of machine design, 2; German or French, 2; shop work and

t term: Psychology, 2; higher algebra and analytical geometry,
natics, 2; mechanics of materials, 3; machine design, 2; phys-
op work and laboratory. Optional: German, French, and chem-
cond term: Psychology, 2; differential calculus, 3; physics, 2;
inery, 2; mechanics of materials, 3; machine design, 2; phys-
hop work and laboratory. Optional: German, French, chemical
term: Integral calculus, 3; physics, 2; hydraulics, 3; kinemat-
machine design, 2; physical laboratory, 2; shop work and lab-
Moral science, German, French, chemical laboratory.

Mechanical engineering.

term: Political economy, 2; roofs and bridges, 3; analytical
n-engine design, 2; valve gears, 2; thermodynamics, 4; shop
. Optional: German or French. Second term: Political econ-
e design, 3; graphical statics of mechanism, 3; mechanics of
engineering, 3; mechanical laboratory, 2. Optional: German
rm: International or constitutional law, 2; steam-engine de-
atics of mechanism, 2; mechanics of machinery, 4; steam engi-
cal laboratory, 2.

Electrical engineering.

term: Political economy, 2; theory of electricity, 3; analyt-
steam-engine design, 2; valve gears, 2; thermodynamics, 4;
atory. Optional: German or French. Second term: Political
ngine design, 3; graphical statics of mechanism, 3; electrical
engineering, 3; electrical laboratory, 2. Optional: German or
: International or constitutional law, 2; steam-engine design,
of mechanism, 2; applied electricity, 4; steam engineering, 4;
, 2.

griculture, leading to the degree of bachelor of agriculture.

irst term: Rhetoric, 3; physiology, 3; algebra, 3; Latin, 5;
ure, 2; shop work. Second term: Rhetoric, 3; botany, 3; alge-
; instrumental drawing, 2; Latin, 5; zoölogy, 3; agriculture,
d term: Civics, 2; botany, 3; geometry, 5; Latin, 5; instru-
agriculture, 3. Shop work or laboratory.
First term: English classics, 2; ancient history, 2; inorganic
ical laboratory, 4; trigonometry and surveying, 4; German or
ure, 2; free-hand drawing, 2. Optional: Latin. Second term:
mediæval history, 2; inorganic chemistry, 3; botanical labora-
igonometry and conic sections, 4; German or French, 2; horti-
l: Latin. Third term: English literature, 2; modern history,
try, 3; botanical laboratory, 4; mathematics, 4; German or
ure, 4. Optional: Latin.

Junior class.—First term: Psychology, 2; organic chemistry, 3; mineralogy, 2; chemical laboratory, 3; physics, 2; German or French, 2; agriculture, 5. Optional: Latin. Second term: Psychology, 2; logic, 2; organic chemistry, 3; chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; physics, 2; German or French, 2; agriculture, 3; horticulture and landscape gardening, 2. Optional: Latin. Third term: Moral science, 2; logic, 2; organic chemistry, 3; chemical laboratory, 3; mineralogy, 2; physics, 2; German or French, 2; agriculture, 3. Optional: Latin.

Senior class.—First term: Political economy, 2; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; comparative anatomy, 3; entomology, 3; veterinary science, 3. Optional: Latin. Second term: Political economy, 2; sanitary science, 1; geology, 2; stock-breeding, 4; meteorology, 3; veterinary science, 3; agricultural discussion, 1. Optional: Latin. Third term: International or constitutional law, 2; sanitary science, 1; mycology, 2; stock-feeding and dairying, 4; agricultural review, 2; agricultural essays. Optional: Latin.

LITERARY SOCIETIES.

The college is essentially Southern in the prominence it gives to forensic discussion. No feature has proved more popular than the literary exercises, which differ but little from those of literary societies in the average college. Economic, historical, and political questions are discussed, and parliamentary order is strictly enforced. Each of the two societies now in existence has a comfortable hall and a small library. Exercises are held every Saturday morning during the scholastic year.

There are no Greek-letter fraternities in the college. Consequently, the two literary societies, the Delta Phi and the Athenæan, monopolize the interest of the students. The rivalry between these societies has been somewhat like fraternity spirit in many colleges. It has long been an open question as to which society was founded first. According to the catalogues, the constitution of the Delta Phi was adopted January 12, 1835, and that of the Athenæan February 4, 1835.

Established almost simultaneously with the college, they are inextricably interwoven with its historic career. In membership the rival societies were almost side by side when the first Athenæan catalogue was issued, December 21, 1853, the Delta Phi having outnumbered its rival only one in the aggregate since 1835. Of late years, however, the Delta Phi has forged far ahead, and during the year 1888–89 stood to it in point of numbers in the relation of 6 or 7 to 1. Seldom does a student go through the college without joining one of these societies.

The Pestalozzi Literary Society, composed exclusively of young ladies, was organized November 10, 1876, four years after the adoption of coeducation, through the exertions of the 9 young ladies, then students in the college. Its object was to arouse the female students to interest in literary pursuits. A room, allotted them by the president of the college, was suitably furnished by the society, and once a week a literary and social programme was rendered. A well-chosen library, consisting of about 150 volumes, had been collected, when the abolition of coeducation, June 24, 1885, terminated the existence of the society.

JOURNALISM IN THE COLLEGE.

ccessful efforts have been made to conduct a college

College Advance came into existence soon after the ut in 1874 the students were compelled to petition the cial aid to revive the dying journal. The sum of $50 , but this provided only temporary relief, and death Advance.

pt was made in September, 1882, when the Delaware as issued, under the editorial management of Horace then a junior, but under President Harrison consul nce. An interesting sheet it proved until the mis- llege compelled it also, two years later, to suspend s lately been revived and the first number was issued

MNI AND DISTINGUISHED STUDENTS.

er of graduates from the founding of the college to whom were classical students; from 1850 to 1859, 49, classical and 19 scientific. During the administration were graduated; 25 of whom were classical, 36 scien- nd 6 normal. From 1885 to 1892, inclusive, there were e total number of graduates to 1892, inclusive, is 270. llowing list of students who have won distinction is shows that the college has sent out many noted men:

gnew, the famous surgeon and medical writer.
le, United States Senator, 1864–67.
bury, United States Senator, 1859–71; chancellor of Delaware

ns, United States Senator, 1889– —.
nd, Congressman from Delaware, 1872–74.
rtin, Delaware's Representative in the Forty-sixth Congress.
itely, associate judge of Delaware.
dford, an eminent lawyer and judge.
er, associate judge of Delaware.
y, M. D., governor of Delaware, 1866–70.
Mears, professor of philosophy in Hamilton College, New York; r Congress in 1871, and later for the governorship of New York bitionists; author of many books.
rnell, LL.D., president of Delaware College, 1870–85.
. Lupton, president of University of Alabama, 1871–74; author s Scientific Agriculture."
nes, professor of modern languages and literature in the Col- Carolina.
sey, secretary of state of Delaware, 1883–87.
llough, attorney-general of California, 1863–67; vice-president a Railroad.
gley, M. D., editor of Lynchburg (Va.) Daily Express (1853); Richmond Whig after the war; a frequent contributor to Har- e, Atlantic Monthly, Lippincott's Magazine, under the title of s"; also historian of Virginia.

James H. McNeill, secretary of the American Bible Society.
Rev. George McNeill, editor of the North Carolina Presbyterian.
Capt. Alexander McRea, the hero of Valverde.
Rev. Allen Wright, chief of the Choctaws.
Dr. Epher Whitaker, author of "History of Southold," Long Island.
Gen. Adam E. King, consul-general to Paris, 1890— ——.

COEDUCATION, 1872-1885.

Coeducation was adopted at Delaware College in June, 1872, two years after the reorganization; and after a successful career of thirteen years was abolished, June 24, 1885, by a vote of 13 to 8; 10 of the trustees being absent from the meeting.

During this period 81 young ladies were matriculated and 37 were graduated. Of the 37 graduates, 27 took their degrees in the literary, 4 in the normal, 3 in the classical, and 1 in the scientific course.

In the distribution of honors the young ladies by superior scholarship carried off more than their proportionate share. Their deportment was exemplary. The young men of the college were never more studious and orderly than during the period of coeducation.[1] Moreover, their number was greater than ever before during the same length of time.[2]

It was rumored that the abolition of coeducation was largely due to an impression that the presence of females deterred certain males from entering the college. At any rate, in the face of the above facts and the trend of the times, the trustees of a small college, sadly in need of students, presumed to bar the door of higher education in Delaware against woman.

The writer steadfastly believes, with Ex-President Purnell, that "the college will have to throw open its doors again to woman." President Caldwell in 1887 recommended it, and the governor of the State from 1887 to 1891, Benjamin T. Biggs, in a speech at the Commencement of 1889, called the abolition of coeducation "a burning shame," and declared that "coeducation must again be adopted."

LIBRARY.

July 9, 1834, an appropriation of $1,000 was made by the trustees to purchase a library and philosophical apparatus.[3] After the purchase of the books the following curious rules for the use of the new library were adopted:

1. The library shall be open on Saturday from 12 to 1 o'clock.
2. Students over 14 years of age may have the privilege of the whole of the library; those under 14 of the publications of the *Sunday School Union*[4].

[1] Catalogue of Pestalozzi Literary Society.

[2] The writer has this statement from Ex-President Purnell.

[3] The following sources were used: Minutes of the faculty and trustees; American Almanac, 1838-1845.

[4] The italics are the writer's. It should be remembered that there was at this time an academic department, in which many of the students were mere lads.

nd which books shall not be kept out shall be as follows: Duo-
octavo, two weeks; quarto or folio, four weeks.
eping books beyond the time shall be, for 12mo., 12½ cents;
uarto or folio, 50 cents per week; for grease spots, 6¼ cents for
ove that at the discretion of the librarian; for scribbling with
ith ink, 25 cents; for tearing or cutting a leaf without remov-
noving blank leaf, 12½ cents; printed leaf, 50 cents; for tearing
r or defacing, from 6¼ to 50 cents, at discretion of librarian.
placed.

he students, few as they must have been, who had the
persistence to become readers in the face of such
The meagerness of the library received repeated con-
President Mason, in 1839 and in 1840. He told the
believed that there are few colleges in the country
ided in this respect as our own, and yet it is obvious
ise to a high degree of reputation with an inferior
were cited in which they had lost students through
the library.

ontained 600 volumes in 1838; 900 in 1839; 1,200 in
ooks to the value of $75 and 250 duplicates of books
ary were added, and 200 volumes were set off as the
library for the academy. President Gilbert said about
additions will, however, yet be necessary before it will
the wants of the college." In 1842 the library con-
mes; in 1846, 3,600, and in 1853 about 7,000 volumes.
n November 26, 1878, that one-half of all matricula-
e be placed in the library fund.

valuable books have, from time to time, been added,
ent numbers to give to the library the claim of offering
good bibliography of many subjects. Here and there
a volume valuable because of its age or scarcity.
and Latin texts are found, and in the library of the
y is a copy of Calvin's Christian Institutes, from the
85.

nstitution has been placed upon a firm financial basis
ould receive due consideration and the college be as
ith this indispensable factor to success as are other

on's words of 1839, "The standard of learning in a
much more than is generally supposed on the char-
ary," still present to the trustees food for serious

AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATION.

t station provided for the State of Delaware by the
Hatch bill is made a department of Delaware College.
s, in February, 1888, made the necessary appropria-

A CORNER IN THE BOTANICAL LABORATORY.

AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATION.

[redacted]

tions to the various stations to carry into operation the provisions of the original bill, the trustees of Delaware College proceeded to establish the Delaware College Agricultural Experiment Station. February 21, 1888, steps were taken to appoint a director and to select a suitable location for the station. At the same time the Secretary of the National Treasury was notified that Delaware College was the only agricultural college in the State, being the sole recipient of the benefits of the land grant bill of 1862, and was therefore entitled to the advantages accruing from the Hatch bill.

In May, 1888, George D. Purington, PH. D., of Missouri, was appointed director of the station and professor of agriculture in the college.

The station was then located on the eastern side of the campus, within a few feet of the college building.

The laboratory is a brick structure 43 feet by 27 feet, planned and erected for carrying on investigations in the field prescribed by the Hatch bill. It is two stories high, and each floor is fitted with the most modern apparatus for the proposed investigations. Good reference libraries are provided. The standard American, English, German, and French journals are regularly taken, and in every respect the station is prepared to do work of a high order. A large farm has been secured, temporarily, near the town, and the experiments of the laboratory are supplemented by experiments in the field.

The staff of the station are devoting themselves to an investigation of the nature of the ills from which the agricultural element of the State suffers, and much benefit is expected to result from their labors. The staff as now organized consists of Arthur T. Neale, PH. D., director, who succeeded Dr. Purington in March, 1889; Frederick D. Chester, M. S., botanist; M. H. Beckwith, horticulturist and entomologist; Charles L. Penny, A. M., chemist; William H. Bishop, B. S., agriculturist and meteorologist; and H. P. Eves, D. V. S., veterinarian.

Arthur T. Neale, PH. D., is a graduate of Wesleyan University and was a student for three years in Germany. For several years he was chemist of the New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Station, where he did a great variety of useful work. His experiments concerning the sorghum industry are especially noteworthy.

Prof. F. D. Chester is a graduate of Cornell University and has been at Delaware College since 1882. He is a persistent and successful student of the geology of Delaware and has contributed many excellent articles [1] to the scientific journals on the Quaternary history of the Delaware and Maryland peninsula and the general geology of Delaware.

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[1] Contributions to the Quaternary History of the Delaware and Maryland Peninsula, by F. D. Chester: "Bowlder Drift in Delaware," American Journal of Science, January, 1883; "Stratified Drift in Delaware," American Journal of Science, June, 1883; "The Quaternary Gravels of Northern Delaware and Eastern Maryland," American Journal of Science, March, 1884; "The Quaternary Gravels of the Southern Delaware Peninsula," American Journal of Science, January, 1885.

The General Geology of Delaware: "Preliminary Notes on the Geology of Dela-

QUESTS, ENDOWMENTS, AND INCOME.

Delaware College, to the confusion of its professed the fact that with one exception it has never received tribution, endowment, or bequest.

ee, in 1856, bequeathed to the college property which ed to sell for less than $5,000. Not until 1877 did the ield any return, and the whole amount realized, after expenses, was the paltry sum of $800.

ge received under the land grant from the General ct of Congress of July 2, 1862, $83,000, for which a btedness is held from the State of Delaware, drawing te of 6 per cent per annum. The annual income from 980. According to the provisions of the Hatch bill, Agricultural Experiment Station was established, receives annually the sum of $15,000 from the Treas- n. From each boarding student, except such as hold ewhat more than $90 annually for tuition, room rent, The annual income of the college was, therefore, some- $20,000 when the passage of the Morrill bill, in 1890. 000. This sum will increase somewhat each year.

CONCLUSION.

in Delaware has a pleasant situation, a fair income, a distinguished alumni. Why, then, have so few stu- led? The answer is not far to seek. She has of late d in justifying her right to existence, for a goodly num- that Delaware does not need and can not support a vival of the fittest is as righteous a law in education as midway between the universities of the North and of are College has seen her boys led away willing cap- institutions. Powerless to stay them, she has ever rewith to cover her nakedness. Sometimes friends have are the costly sacrifice of scholarship to popularity. In inted to her poverty. Now, however, the dark clouds rassment have been scattered and we are soon to see make of newly gotten gains. We shall note the steps

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f the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, August, 1884; ology of Delaware," paper read at meeting of the American ncement of Science, September, 1881; "Chapter on the Geology cfarlane's Geological Handbook of the United States.

ography of the Gabbros in Delaware: "The Gabbros and Delaware," Proceedings of the Ann Arbor Meeting of the Amer- the Advancement of Science, September, 1885; The Gabbros and Delaware, illustrated by maps and figures of rock sections S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.).

by which she compels the academies to abandon their sometime just boast of rivalry and makes them feeders. True, $36,000 a year will not satisfy growing needs, and should be supplemented by generous donations from friends; but this sum, at least, insures immediate prosperity.

The number of students, which has greatly increased during the present administration, must not be suffered to diminish. But to retain them the curriculum should be enlarged as well as elevated. Additional scientific and technical courses have recently been opened to attract agricultural patronage. Courses in history, political science, and political economy should be added for the sake of those preparing for law, journalism, and genuine citizenship.

But her ideal should not be a great university; for the realization is forbidden by her remoteness from libraries, small endowment, and geographical situation. Were she to attempt it she would at once be crushed, as between an upper and nether millstone, by Princeton and Johns Hopkins, whose endowments are reckoned by millions, not thousands of dollars. She can nourish no ambition more honorable than to be an excellent college. Let her not indulge at present the hope of an annual roll-call of 500 or 600 students, as the governor of the State at the Commencement of 1889 seductively whispered into her ear. Rather may she find salvation in the noble work of preparing for good citizenship those whom fitness, preference for a small college, or lack of funds debars from the great universities.[1]

[1] The first draft of the chapter on Delaware College was prepared in 1889. The author trusts that in subsequent revisions he has omitted no important event that has happened since that time.

CHAPTER X.

PUBLIC EDUCATION.

BACKGROUND.

public education in Delaware does not begin before the the eighteenth century. But there is ample evidence uring the gloom and want of the Revolutionary period e of educated as well as brave men. George Read, and Thomas McKean were intimately associated with d people in the land and appended to that famous docu- 1776, the names of educated men. The intelligence of ell known throughout the country, and was notably ongress in June, 1776, in the selection of John Dickin- s McKean as members of the committee of twelve ft the Articles of Confederation. These distinguished ere educated in private schools or by private tutors. ubt that the importance of public education was appre- close of the Revolution, but the times did not permit t. The long and bloody conflict not only made sad ulation of the State, but so exhausted her resources noney for educational purposes was out of the question. s burdened by a large debt, and the returned veterans imbursement. It is difficult in the midst of our prosper- condition of the Commonwealth one hundred years ago. eglected lands yielded but scanty returns. The unin- s were not taxed. Mechanical pursuits were almost mercial enterprises had scarcely begun; and yet the t courage, undertook to educate the masses.[1]

EARLY LEGISLATION.

ducation in Delaware was first rendered in 1744 by an bly, ratifying all conveyances of lands or houses for

been prepared chiefly from the State laws and educational re- uphlet on the History of Free Schools in Delaware has also proved ation of Delaware in 1790 was 59,096, and the taxable property 87,223. (Barnard's Journal of Ed., xxiv, 239.)

educational purposes.[1] The second step was taken in 1772, when a lot of land in New Castle was granted for a school. Twenty years later, in the constitution of 1792, the people charged their legislators to provide "for establishing schools and promoting the arts and sciences."

The general assembly responded on February 9, 1796, by passing the first act for the establishment of public schools. This provided that all money accruing from marriage and tavern licenses, from 1796 to 1805, should be appropriated as a fund for the establishment of public schools. The State treasurer was constituted temporary trustee, and was authorized to receive gifts, donations, and bequests from individuals. When the money amounted to a sufficient sum he was to invest it in shares of stock of the Bank of Delaware, the Bank of the United States, the Bank of Pennsylvania, and the Bank of North America, and with the dividends arising therefrom to purchase other shares. The entire fund was then to be applied to the establishment of schools in the hundreds of the counties "for the purpose of instructing the children of the inhabitants thereof in the English language, arithmetic, and such other branches of knowledge as are most useful and necessary in completing a good English education." But this fund could not be applied "to the erecting or supporting any academy, college, or university in this State."

The act of 1796 was supplemented January 24, 1797, by a clause which ordered the trustee to sell the three shares of stock of the Bank of Delaware which he had already purchased, and to subscribe for bank shares reserved for the State. It was also enacted that the money arising from marriage and tavern licenses should first be applied to the payment of the chancellor and judges and the remainder appropriated for the establishment of schools. The money applied to the payment of the chancellor and judges was to be replaced by the sale of vacant lands in the State and by money accruing to the State from arrearage taxes.[2] In

[1] The preamble of the act referred to reads as follows: "Whereas sundry religions societies of people within this Government, professing the Protestant religion, have, at their own respective costs and charges, purchased small pieces of land within this Government, and thereon have erected churches and other houses of religious worship, schoolhouses, * * * and have * * * attempted to deprive the people in possession of the use of 'the house of worship,' etc. * * * For remedy whereof, and for the better securing the several religious societies in the quiet and peaceable possession of their churches, houses of worship, schoolhouses, almshouses, and burying-grounds. * * *

"*Be it enacted*, * * * That all gifts, grants, or bargains and sales, made of lands or tenements within this Government, to any person or persons in trust for societies of Protestant churches, houses of religious worship, schools, almshouses, and burying-grounds, or for any of them, shall be, and are thereby, ratified and confirmed to the person or persons to whom the same were sold, given, or granted," etc.

Taken from Laws of the Government of New Castle, Kent, and Sussex upon Delaware. Printed by B. Franklin and D. Hall; Wilmington, 1763; 272 *et seq.* These will be found in the Charlemagne Tower collection in the library of the Pennsylvania Historical Society at Philadelphia.

[2] Laws of Delaware, II, 1352 *et seq.*; VI, 327.

ted that the act of 1796 and the modifying act of 1797 in full force until January 1, 1820. In 1823 the legis- hat the school fund which had accumulated from the hould be deposited in the Farmers' Bank.

nent of a school fund in Delaware dates, therefore, from Cochran, in his message to the general assembly of

ay seem to us now, a day of small things; yet with a steadiness eat discouragement, which we can not too much honor, the invest- ll sums were faithfully made from year to year, until at length lated yielding an income adequate to commence the work of a tion.

on the fund was made on February 6, 1817, when an ppropriating to each county $1,000 to furnish instruc- ren of poor parents in reading, writing, and arithmetic. mbly appointed trustees to disburse these amounts in lreds and to report from time to time the number of state of the schools. The act was enforced for several r won popularity because it drew a hard and fast line r and the rich.[1]

were organized and the way was opened for further ut such a widespread discontent prevailed that the ch was popularly called "a poor children's fund," was ing diverted from its legitimate channel. Governor message referred to above, says:

ing that a provision which invited an independent people to schooled as paupers proved a failure. Perhaps the best fruit of t it excited a widespread discontent, which served to quicken ect; provoking discussion, and stimulating to an earnest effort l and more efficient system.

E ORGANIZATION OF SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

ion of Sunday schools in Delaware is noteworthy in The idea first promulgated by Robert Raikes, that ould on Sunday be taught to read by paid teachers, ried out in the organization of Sunday schools under ebruary 3, 1821, providing that every school instituted the education of children on the Sabbath day should ceive from the treasurer a sum of money not exceeding white scholar enrolled. Under this act, in 1829, nine- e established, which received in the aggregate $224.09. en amended so that each of the three counties now ward the maintenance of Sunday schools.[2]

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s of Delaware, v, 251. [2] Scharf, i, 445.

THE DECADE BEFORE THE LAW OF 1829.

In 1821 an effort was made to blot out the indignity offered to the self-respect of a "high-spirited and brave people" by the act of 1817. It was enacted—

That for each and every white child taught at any incorporated school or any other regular English school within this State, and for whose tuition the teacher could not in any other way receive compensation by reason of the indigence of such child, the teacher should receive $1 per quarter, or $4 annually, to be paid out of the unappropriated money in the school fund established for schools; and no one teacher should be paid for more than twenty children during each year.

This act merely added to the unpopularity of the scheme. The fund received the significant title of "pauper's fund," and the children who embraced its benefits became the butt of ridicule for their more fortunate companions.

Governor Collins, in his message of 1822, says:

The charitable nature of the appropriations and the benevolent views with which they are made command our esteem, but it is wisdom to consider that the general purposes of education in which the whole community are interested, demand more than our school fund can afford, and that duty therefore requires that no part of it should be diverted from its legitimate course.

Subsequent governors followed the initiative of Governor Collins. Governor Rodney in 1823, Governor Thomas in 1824, Governor Paynter in 1827, and Governor Polk in 1829, called attention to the subject in their messages to the general assembly, and advised the establishment of a genuine system of public education.

Thirty-two years had elapsed since "the marriage and tavern license" school fund had been created, and it now amounted in the aggregate to $151,643.42. The annual income for educational purposes at this time was $9,255.50.[1] This fund should be used, Governor Polk thought, "to induce voluntary contributions from the people adequate to supply its own deficiency, or if it can by any means be so applied as to give a successful impulse to a system of general instruction throughout the State it will answer the end anticipated from its establishment." To him it seemed that no form of popular education could be successful unless State aid was rendered subservient to individual effort.

Since the will of the people usually focalizes in the executive of the democracy, the above quotations from gubernatorial messages show the rising interest in education.[2] The masses had begun to clamor in no uncertain voice for enlightenment, and public education had at last taken rank among leading issues of the day. Its champions, though

[1] This was derived from the following sources: Annual dividend on 2,439 shares of stock in Farmers' Bank, or $121,950 at 5 per cent, $6,097.50; annual dividend on 37 shares of stock in Bank of Delaware, at $20 per share, $740; annual dividend on 32 shares of stock in Bank of United States, at $6.50 per share, $208; proceeds of marriage and tavern licenses, $2,210. Total, $9,255.50. (See American Annual Register, 1829.)

[2] See gubernatorial messages in Journal of House of Representatives, especially vol. II.

guided, were always sincere, as appears from the pas-
1826 making the burning of a schoolhouse felony and
erpetrator of the deed liable to a fine of not less than
than $6,000.[1]

n had one friend as wise as he was sincere. Willard
rmulated a plan which served as the basis of the law of
y won for him the the title of founder of the free school
ware.

WILLARD HALL.

(1780–1875) was born in Massachusetts, December 24,
a student at Harvard with Horace Binney, William
g, Joseph Story, and Lemuel Shaw, and was graduated
studied law under Judge Samuel Dana, and in 1803,
of James A. Bayard, he came to Delaware, where he
death, in 1875. He was secretary of state from 1811–
gain appointed in 1821. He was elected to the State
and the following year President Monroe appointed him
f the United States for Delaware, an office which he
g term of forty-eight years, retiring in 1872 at the age
a member of the constitutional convention in 1831, and
the State laws, and published them as "Laws of Dela-
nclusive" (Wilmington, 1829).[2]

writes that when he settled at Dover in 1803,

no provision by law in the State for schools. Neighbors or small
hired a teacher for their children. There were in some rare places
* * The teachers frequently were intemperate, whose qualification
bility to earn anything in any other way. A clergyman who had
s a scholar, but had been silenced as a preacher for incorrigible
l very prominent as a teacher. In the best towns it depended
at kind of a teacher they had. * * * But even in the best
chers of the young frequently were immoral and incapable; and
nerally there was either a school of the worst character or none

d Hall became secretary of state under Governor Col-
e friends of education discouraged at the failure of the
furnish a satisfactory incentive to the growth of free
ones originated, and Governor Collins presented to the
ly with great force of reason, what in principle and out-
for fifty years the school system of Delaware. After
stem Willard Hall became its ever-watchful guardian
lent. His interest was not relaxed, his aid not with-
before his death he saw the passage of the law of 1875.
eral assembly recognized him as the most competent

[1] Laws of Delaware, vi, 715.
[2] Appleton's Cyclopædia.
[3] Barnard's Journal of Education, xvi, 129.

man to reduce to a system the outlines he had suggested in 1822 by inviting him to mature his plan in detail and embody it in a statute.

Thus was produced in 1829 the free-school law of Delaware.

THE FREE SCHOOL LAW OF 1829.

SYNOPSIS.

Division of the State into school districts.—The levy court appointed five commissioners in each county to divide it into school districts. In making the division "it shall be a general regulation to form each district so that the most remote parts should be 2 miles, or about that distance, from the center, except districts comprehending a town, which may be of such dimensions as shall be just, having respect to the size of town or towns." Furthermore, they were to ascertain the number of schools in operation, the number of scholars taught therein, the several sums paid to the teachers, and to form an estimate of the number of children in each district between 5 and 21 years of age. The commissioners of each county were to form a board, with authority to review their proceedings as commissioners and to alter or form the bounds of any district.

Annual school meetings.—The school voters in each district were privileged to hold a stated meeting every year, on the second Monday of October, at 1 o'clock in the afternoon, at the schoolhouse or any place designated by the levy court, to elect, by ballot, a clerk and 2 commissioners. They were to determine in the same manner how much money was to be raised by subscription or voluntary contribution "for the support of a free school" in the district. Every resident in the district having a right to vote for representatives in the general assembly was also a school voter of said district.[1]

Duties of the clerk and commissioners.—(1) To determine a situation and erect a school building thereon; (2) to keep the building in good repair; (3) to provide a school for as long a time as the funds would admit; (4) to receive all moneys and apply the same; (5) to employ teachers; (6) to do all acts requisite to the maintenance of a school.

They shall employ as a teacher no person whom they shall not have just grounds to believe to be of good moral character and well qualified to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, and English grammar, and such other branches of knowledge as the committee may deem necessary to be taught in the district. They may employ a female teacher (in respect to whom the qualification of reading and writing may be sufficient) in the summer months or other parts of the year when small children can attend school and others are engaged in the common occupations of the country. They may dismiss a teacher.

State appropriations.—The clear income of the school fund thereafter to accrue was to be apportioned and appropriated among the school districts. Each district, however, should have from the school fund an amount equal to that resolved to be raised by the voters, and no greater.

[1] The committee were elected for one year until in 1867 their term was extended to three years.

to settle the accounts of the school committees, who efore him whenever he attended "in their county to t of the county treasurer."

school was to be opened on the first Monday in No- ntinue as long as funds permitted. It was free to all The school committee was to make regulations for the e school and by these was to "provide for the expul- for obstinate misbehaviour."

-Each school was made a corporation by the name of o. —; "said corporation by said name shall take and ildings, etc., and protect property as any other cor-

tendents.—The governor was directed to appoint, on or Monday in March, a superintendent of each county for uties of the superintendent were: (1) To correspond interested in the execution of the act; (2) to aid in all ed with its execution; (3) to supply school districts s and to advise them in respect to their proceedings; otice be given of division of districts; (5) to collect report to the general assembly. For his services no compensation but the payment of all expenses in- formance of his duties.

—All acts that had been passed appropriating any chool fund for aid of poor children, or support and f schools from 1817 to February 12, 1829, were repealed.[1]

STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS OF THIS LAW.

Hall said of this law:

under these laws is simple and plain. It forms school districts, tes the meeting of the school voters in these districts, and com- in these meetings the whole power over the subject of common tricts. Every school district is a republican community for the taking care of the interests of popular education within its upon the school voters whether the children of the district it of a school and what kind of a school they shall have.

the law appears in another quotation from Judge Hall:

system is not to make schools by its operation, but to enable le to make schools by their own agency.

was applied to the school law to indicate two facts: First, that free to choose the length of time their schools should be in y one year, and the amount of money to be raised by taxation for ame, thus placing upon the people themselves, voting in the school r and responsibility of determining whether they would have a rior one, or no school; second, making the title show that the were free for every white child to attend without reference to een paid by its father or guardian.[2]

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re, VII, 184-197. Fifth Annual Report of Superintendent of Free taining Groves's History of Free Schools of Delaware, 47 et seq.

The law of 1829 appeared at the time eminently adapted to meet the wants of the people, resting as it did on the popular will, and throwing the responsibility upon those having children to educate to say to what extent the privilege should be used. The State became the patron of public education, and shared the expense thereof with the people; but time brought to light objectionable points in the system which amendments scarcely removed. The law was amended in 1830 by the provision that no school district should raise by taxation in one year more than $300. Three years later the privilege of uniting for school purposes was given to adjacent districts. The time for holding the annual meeting was changed first from the second to the first Monday in October, and in 1845 to the first Saturday in April. The State in 1835 offered additional encouragement to the law by authorizing the employment of the lottery scheme to raise $100,000, of which $25,000 was to go to the school fund. By the year 1833 more than 133 districts had been organized and were receiving aid from the fund. Of these 61 were in New Castle County, 36 in Kent, and 36 in Sussex. It soon became apparent that the fund was insufficient. The districts were unwilling to tax themselves to supply the deficiency, and so the schools declined. Willard Hall and other friends of the cause again came to the rescue and largely by means of educational conventions, extending over a period of forty years, secured the necessary legislation and gave to the State its present system.

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS.

"SCHOOL CONVENTION OF NEW CASTLE COUNTY."

Educational conventions in Delaware were organized opportunely for the cause.[1] In 1836 a surplus in the United States Treasury of more than $42,000,000 was ordered by Congress to be deposited with the several States in proportion to their representation in Congress. Owing to financial embarrassments the amount finally distributed was somewhat less than $30,000,000. Sixteen of the twenty-six States then organized (1837) applied their share of the deposit, in whole or part, to the public-school fund, and eight appropriated the whole of their shares, amounting in the aggregate to $9,855,134, to this purpose. Among the latter was Delaware, which received the smallest share.[2]

To secure this surplus for school purposes prompted the friends of education to summon delegates from the seventy-two districts of New Castle County to a convention at Wilmington, on December 15, 1836. There were present 123 delegates from 48 of the districts. An organization was effected, with Willard Hall as president. A committee

[1] In the preparation of this section the writer has frequently followed Barnard (xvi, 1866, 369–372). Groves, Boone, Scharf, and the American Almanac have also been used.

[2] Boone's History of Education in the United States, 91

ed, consisting of the president and others, to request accept the State's share of the surplus revenue and to ncome thereof to the school districts for the purpose of improving public schools. An act was accordingly l of February following, dividing the revenues of the ually among the counties, and providing for its appli- y to school purposes. The convention resolved before n annual "School convention of New Castle County" Wilmington, composed of two or more delegates from district clerks and school commissioners, and all friends ion. Although no permanent organization was effected ion was adopted, yet this convention held its regular y for twenty years and rendered the cause invaluable portant step was taken without its sanction, nor would r to place upon it the responsibility for the adoption of ant legal measures touching education during that

bstacle to improvement was the repugnance of the peo- Ignorant and poor voters, as well as those of the rich t interest in education, at the annual meeting, year down taxes, thus depriving those desiring to educate th of the aid of the State and of the assessable prop- istricts. Instances were by no means rare of children tion being in this way deprived of all school privileges. gainst such shortsightedness were uttered by those to rity of the State seemed indissolubly united with pub-

enacted that each district should be permitted to draw chool fund by raising $25 by taxation. That this tax asily, it was ordered, in 1843, that its collection should ly with other taxes and not by special collectors.

THE FIRST STATE CONVENTION.

educational convention met at Dover, in January, 1843, existing school law. The school fund at this time ,000. There were in operation 182 schools, with 6,148 ars before more than $32,000 was expended in one

nvention agreed to offer to the legislature, as an e existing law, a proposition to lay a tax of at least ct; but this was afterwards reconsidered, and rejected ty. It seemed inconsistent with republican principles school purposes should be compulsory, and they ex- eral views in the following words:

Massachusetts board of education declares that the cardinal prin- e foundation of their educational system is that all the children educated by the State. Let it be distinctly remarked that this

is not the principle of our school system, but that our school system is founded upon the position that the people must educate their own children, and that all the State should do or can do for any useful effect is to organize them into communities, so as to act together for that purpose, and help and encourage them to act efficiently. To the full extent of its power the State has granted this help and encouragement by fair division among all of the school districts of the income of the school fund. The school of every district is thus in the power of its school voters; they can have as good a school as they please, or an inferior school, or no school. The whole responsibility rests upon them, and the measure of that responsibility is the welfare or calamity of all the children of the district.

But the operation of this principle wrought a gradual change in the views of its strongest adherents. In 1845 and again in 1846, in order to elicit public feeling upon the subject, the voters in each district were urged to hold a special meeting to consider the expediency of legalizing a general system of taxation; and, although no change was effected in the law, there came a gradual revulsion of public sentiment.

The service of the school convention of New Castle County to education in that county is clearly seen in the fact that the amount raised there by tax in 1852 was nearly double that of 1832, while in Kent and Sussex it had increased but little more than one-fifth, and was actually less than in 1841. In 1853 the convention attempted to remove the imposition of school taxes beyond the domain of the district by appointing a committee to secure the passage of a law authorizing school taxes in New Castle County to be levied, like other taxes, without vote of the school districts.[1]

Meanwhile, public sentiment throughout the State was increasing in favor of removing taxation for the maintenance of schools beyond the caprices, narrowness, and prejudices of the voter.

Although the chief agent (the educational convention) in awakening this sentiment was abandoned shortly before the Civil War, its influence lived and brought about the passage of the important act of 1861.

THE ACT OF 1861.

The act of 1861 emphatically made it the duty "of the school committee in each of the school districts, in their respective counties, in each and every year, in the month of April, and after each annual school meeting, to assess and levy in each of their respective school districts in New Castle County, the sum of seventy-five dollars; in each of the school districts of Kent County, the sum of one hundred dollars; in each of the school districts of Sussex County the sum of thirty dollars, to be applied to the support of the schools in their districts." Further, giving each district the power by vote to raise by tax more than the amount set apart, "provided said sum does not exceed four hundred dollars, exclusive of the amount designated by law." Still further authority was given to the voters to raise by tax "any sum of money not exceeding five hundred dollars, for the purpose of building or repairing a schoolhouse in their district."[2]

The importance of this act can scarcely be overestimated, inasmuch as it decided for all time that no child could, by vote of the district, be deprived of the opportunity to secure a common school education. In

[1] Barnard, XVI, 370. [2] Groves, 49.

n for educational purposes to this point, two facts eworthy: First, that the privilege of deciding whether re to be maintained was abridged and finally removed econd, that the requirement that each district should ount as the State donated was so modified that finally 25 was required to be raised by taxation to secure a l fund.

NERAL EFFECT OF THE EARLY CONVENTIONS.

f the educational conventions was not confined to the . They understood that, however great the power n not do everything. It can serve society best by uiding its members to educational salvation. The g teachers and establishing a normal school was dis- y meetings of the convention, but after an adverse om Willard Hall and others, it was deemed inexpedi- l measures in that direction. But they passed reso- he procuring of libraries, the formation of lyceums, n of the New York Common School Assistant. Com- pointed to examine teachers and visit schools; and to procure the passage of a law creating a board of h Hundred, and requiring greater strictness in the achers. In 1844 the question of a State superintend- as raised, but indefinitely postponed; and in the follow- ation of "teachers' societies" was recommended. A opted, in 1846, "approving the effort making by a por- l population to confer upon their children the advan- n, and urging upon them this important duty as a ng their moral and social condition."

47, an "association" of the teachers of New Castle gether by the convention, was formed for the purpose , but was soon abandoned. A second effort, scarcely s made in 1854. In 1850 and later years unsuccessful ade to procure the means for sustaining a school ivate subscription and then by application to the leg- ons was called in the same year to the subject of school the improvement of the school-houses of the county inent object of the convention.

t important features of the convention's work was the n of appending to its published proceedings remarks tion of the convention and the wants of the public l Hall served as president during its entire history, d 1840, when Dr. Arnold Naudain held the office, and F. Askew was appointed. The last meeting of the eld in 1855.

There were at this time 236 districts in the State and the same number of free schools were in operation, with 10,230 pupils, out of a total white population of 71,169. The permanent school fund amounted to $435,505. From this source and private contributions $57,738.95 was received and $49,469.30 expended for free schools. The State provided for the education of its indigent deaf mutes and blind children in Philadelphia institutions at a cost of $1,500.[1]

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

The duties of the county superintendent were limited and did not include the visitation or supervision of schools. In 1853 an effort was made to obtain from the legislature the appointment of a superintendent, with a definite salary, who should visit the districts and schools of the county, collect and diffuse information, and by private intercourse and public addresses arouse a keener interest in public education. The attempt was repeated the next year and a bill was drafted, including other proposed amendments, but it was defeated in the senate. There was no emolument attached to the office; accordingly, only philanthropists took it. Willard Hall was for twenty or more years superintendent in New Castle County, and discharged his duties so faithfully as to evoke the oft-quoted remark that under him "the care of the schools was paternal." He met delegates from all parts of the county; discussed methods with them; carefully examined their reports; classified and published their work in pamphlet form for distribution, thus diffusing throughout the county information which increased the interest in education. In spite of his labors he was not as successful as he had hoped. Indeed, he sometimes lost courage, and once remarked:

> The stream rises no higher than its source, and so in the very neighborhoods where the improving influence of a good district free school is most needed there it is never found.

Willard Hall was succeeded in the superintendency of New Castle County in 1855 by Dr. A. H. Grimshaw, who made a full report upon the condition of schools to the next convention. The publication of an educational monthly, the Delaware School Journal, was begun about the same time under his editorship, but was not continued beyond a few numbers for want of sufficient encouragement. Other county superintendents were Henry W. Patterson, Dr. Robert H. Griffith, Samuel M. Harrington, Peter Robinson, Joshua G. Baker, Joseph Smithers, Simon Spearman, Charles Marim, Robert O. Pennewill, William Cannon, Daniel M. Bates, Willard Saulsbury, William Johnson, John A. Nicholson, Jonathan R. Torbet.[2]

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[1] Barnard, I, 373. The statistics given are for 1851.

[2] Scharf (vol. I, 446) gives the above list, but errs in the statement that they all were superintendents in New Castle County. Some were in Kent and some in Sussex County. *See* American Almanac, 1843, p. 239.

THE CONVENTION OF 1867.

erest in education after the Civil war culminated in Dover, December 23, 1867, called "for a mutual in-ons; to receive and discuss suggestions of improve-ing laws." Many prominent men were present and its re conducted with signal unanimity, harmony, and committee appointed to draft a general school code, ress the alterations desired, reported at the next meet-tion, July 13, 1868. They recommended changes in he law of 1829, which were included, with but two The New School Law of 1875."

e labors of this convention was presented to the gen-869 in what was called "The New School Law," and urged in vain. Similar efforts, made in 1871 and 1873, , but the friends of education only urged their cause rgy until, on March 25, 1875, they secured the pas-School Law of 1875."

of education in Delaware in 1870 appears from the ar to have been as follows:

population of 125,015, there were 19,356 persons over who could not read and 23,100 who could not write. population (5–18 years) of 40,807, only 19,965 were n the previous year. There were 326 public schools, 35 pupils; 9 academic institutions, under 63 teachers, 9 pupils. (These included 2 colleges, with 15 teach-ale—and 137 pupils, of whom 120 were female.) There and parochial schools, with 59 teachers and 1,881

ere 330 public schools in operation. The permanent nted to $300,000 and the cost of public schools was

lates' mark years in which acts relating to public assed by the general assembly before 1870: 1796, 821, 1829, 1830, 1832, 1833, 1835, 1837, 1852, 1857, 1858,

TIME SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLMASTERS.

f schools and the character of the teachers from 1829 notice, so that we may clearly understand the improve-

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n related to the mode of assessing and collecting taxes for school d that the whole matter should be taken out of the hands of an transferred to a board of school commissioners of each hundred trict, which were to be substituted for the single geographical e second exception recommended the appointment of county dition to a State superintendent.

3.

ment that followed in the wake of the law of 1875. In 1880 James H. Groves said:

Fifty years ago there were not more than twenty schoolhouses in the State, and these were owned by private individuals. Children were taught mostly in private houses, and none but the wealthier classes could afford to any great extent the expenses of tuition. The number of children of school age was about 15,000 in a population of 58,000. The branches taught were very primary, the books were of the crudest kind, and the furniture of the rudest material and structure. The teachers were themselves possessed of limited education, and candidates for college courses but rare.

The condition of schools during the first half of the present century was indeed deplorable. The schoolhouses were, if possible, inferior to the schools. "Our churches, our clothes, everything but the schoolhouse manifests an age of improvement," wrote Dr. A. H. Grimshaw in 1855. The bleakest, noisiest, dustiest spot in the district, always on a public road, generally at the junction of two, was chosen after excited deliberations, and upon it a cabin of logs or unsmoothed timber was erected. Few schoolhouses had porches, and not one in fifty enjoyed the unpardonable luxury of a shoe scraper, the only agent which could save the floor on stormy days from assuming the color and texture of the muddy road. The houses were usually too small to accommodate the district pupils, and so they had to attend by turns; the girls and small children giving place, as winter came on, to the big boys. Even when the houses were large enough comfort was out of the question, for the desks were either arranged around the walls, giving the teacher a fine view of the backs of his scholars and turning their faces towards the rays of light, unbroken by curtains; or they were placed back to back, so that the occupants, not infrequently sweethearts, amused themselves and their neighbors instead of studying. The little house was in winter a microcosm of climates. From the frigid corners came forth at frequent intervals the cry "Teacher, kin I go to the fire?" followed by the scuffling of cold feet as they made their way to the torrid zone around the heated stove. Ventilation—and frequently pneumonia—was afforded through the single door or the upraised windows. Blackboards were few and small, and usually served as ornaments, being hung beyond the reach of the pupils. Of globes, numeral frames, and maps, except of Delaware, there were none outside of Wilmington.

A uniform system of text-books was as yet a dream. Comly's Spelling Book, the English Reader, Murray's Grammar, and Pike's Arithmetic were used more than other books, but students were generally sent to school either without books or with such as suited the caprice or poverty of their parents.[1]

[1] Dr. Grimshaw said, in 1855, "I found in one school with 43 names on the roll, the average attendance in which was 27, five different kinds of reading books, and seven different sorts of arithmetic.

Todd describes a typical peninsular schoolhouse of
ows:

e after this the schoolhouse at Chinquepin was completed.
e in appearance and comfortable in its appointments. It was
ng desk on either side, instead of but one as heretofore, so that
uld write at the same time. There were six nice slab benches,
d girls, but all so high from the floor that the smaller children
on a perch whenever they sat down. * * * This new school-
with a large ten-plate stove in the center of the room. Alto-
ine that there was much competition among country professors
the distinguished honor of presiding at Chinquepin.[1]

chers were qualified to teach even the elementary
glish education. One of the most popular teachers
re twenty years ago, as the writer distinctly remem-
such ludicrous mistakes as the pronunciation of
gh it were spelt *pictureskew*. System was wanting to
that their pupils were instructed singly and not in
t unfrequently, children attended school for four or
learning to read, write, and "cipher" through long

l gives the following graphic picture of "Old time
masters" of the thirties and forties:

-shaven face—for only rowdies wore beards in those good old
over with many wrinkles of benevolence and care; and the
ous years had polished his bald head until it had become a
for the festive house fly. One little patch of iron-gray hair
ve his pug nose, which was combed up and carefully trained
l ornament; and the little remaining on either side above his
little tufts, sticking out at right angles, and giving him some-
e of a nondescript animal of the baboon persuasion with three
effect was heightened by the presence of an immense pair of
which alternately bestrid his nose and adorned his bald and
index to the vast library of knowledge entombed within that

um of our school was covered by the three cabalistic letters
to represent the three great sciences, "Readin', Ritin', and
ee G's—Grammar, G'ography, and G'ometry, had then scarcely
r possible to be taught in a country school. It was not until
ot indeed until the renowned "Chinquepin" schoolhouse had
away on the road to "Punch Hall," that we ever heard of
h Grammar or Geography.
r a primer—for it mattered not what it was so there were A,
ext-book most in demand in Mr. Marshall's log-cabin school.
f teaching A, B, Cs was to point with a little stick he kept for

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dd, a prominent member of the Wilmington Conference of the
Church, published in 1886, "Methodism of the Peninsula," from
and others to follow are taken. In his chapter on "Old Time
sters" he gives us reminiscences of his early school days, which
) occurred, as far as he recalls them, exactly as narrated. The
nated in Maryland, but so near the Delaware line as to be in
the average Delaware school of that time.

the purpose to each letter in regular order, call its name, and require us to pronounce the name after him. As his time was divided between pointing to the letters and watching Billy Wadman, Dick Sorden, Bill Daniel Roe, Sally Price, *et al.*, it not infrequently happened that the urchin reciting was looking anywhere else than at the alphabetical forms pointed out and called in turn by the master himself. It required most of the winter for many of us to learn to distinguish these different signs of sound.

As a general rule scholars were not permitted to attempt reading until they had mastered the spelling book, even to the long words like "concatenation, hieroglyphically," etc.; and our next teacher invented a test word it was necessary for the pupil to master before he could take up the initial reading lessons about the wren, the robin redbreast, and the lion. This test word was *honorifficabilitudeanditatibusque!* When the pupil could repeat and spell this huge medley of nonsense, going back at each syllable and pronouncing up to and including the last syllable spelled in regular order without a hitch or blunder until he reached the towering conclusion, he was graduated to reading.[1]

After mastering the few reading lessons in the speller the next book in order was the introduction to the "English Reader," and after that the "English Reader," provided the pupil could conveniently secure them. * * * It was absolutely impossible for the teacher to arrange his pupils in classes; and consequently each one must needs be heard separately. The time being limited and the books generally of a grade too difficult for beginners, to facilitate matters Master Marshall usually read along ahead of the scholar, sentence by sentence or a few words at a time, the pupil repeating after him in drawling style as correctly as a parrot. * * * In like manner the beginner in mathematics was plunged headlong into the profundities of Pike's Arithmetic, two-thirds of whose examples involving money values were stated in pounds, shillings, and pence. * * * Mr. Marshall, it was said, could "do all the sums in the 'rithmetic." He was reputed to be a veritable Pythagoras at "figgerin." He was, withal, very obliging to show his scholars how by "doing the sum;" but he never explained it. It is doubtful, indeed, whether he could, having learned arithmetic, as he taught it, simply by rote. * * * While Master Marshall's hickory rods were generally innocent ornaments, Mr. Wilson's[2] furniture in that interesting line was brought into constant requisition and needed to be almost daily replenished. Neither nationality, age, sex, nor "previous condition of servitude" exempted any scholar who was thought to have forgotten or disobeyed some rule; but I really believe his liberal use of the rod was inspired by conscientious convictions of duty. * * * I solemnly aver that for many of the floggings I received from this devoted friend and teacher, averaging nearly one per diem for a year, I found it impossible to discover any cause, and he was too quiet and dignified to explain. Again and again, as I sat unconscious of violating any of Master Wilson's rules, the hickory, pitched with the unerring aim of an aborigine, would roll from my person rattling down upon the floor. That performance meant a notification that it was now my interesting duty to take that switch back to the teacher's desk and stand to receive the chastisement supposed to be needed for my intellectual development. Sometimes, my next neighbor on the slab being involved in the misdemeanor, real or imaginary, we were both required for the service of returning the projectile to the battery, one at each end; but on arriving the handle end was relinquished to Master Wilson and we twain became active partners at the other end.

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[1] The writer found appended to the proof the following interesting verification by the proof-reader of this paragraph: "J. N. Hall, 83 years of age, one of the readers in the Government Printing Office, distinctly remembers spelling a test word similar to that above mentioned by syllables in his younger days, thus: Ho-no-ri-fi-ca-bi-li-tu-ni-te-tat-and-a-bus-que, repeating the pronunciation of each syllable to the completion of the word, and can do it to-day as readily and rapidly as in his youth."

[2] Mr. Wilson was Master Marshall's successor.

THE LAW OF 1875—SYNOPSIS.[1]

st.—A State superintendent is, by this law, to be appointed ernor, "to hold his office one year or until his successor shall ppointed." His duties are to visit every school in the State once ook the modes of discipline, government, and plans of instruc- se with teachers as to the best methods for the advancement of mine all that may desire to teach; to hold a teachers' institute ntles at least once a year, of at least three days' session, for on and having a general interchange of views of teachers as to rious schools; to report in writing to the governor on the first r in each and every year the condition of the schools, and make ns and suggestions as he may think proper in regard to a thor- the system.

ection.—The president of Delaware College, secretary of state, State superintendent comprise the State board of education. laware College, by virtue of his office, is president of the board ecretary of the same. The latter officer receives a salary of one annum. The other members receive no pay. The duties of the ine what text-books shall be used in the schools; to issue blanks bution to the local commissioners, and to demand returns to be hereof; to hear all appeals and determine finally all matters of commissioners and teachers.

hers are required to have a certificate from the State superin- ed by the county treasurer in the county issued, upon the pay- said certificate setting forth his or her proficiency in the com- es; to make out and hand to the commissioners of the district a the whole number of pupils attending school during the quarter, and branches taught.

nner of raising revenue is the same as in the old law, except that ch school district is required to raise by taxation not less than ly, instead of thirty, as formerly, and in Newcastle County one end of seventy-five as formerly.

ment was made to the act of 1875 requiring the superintendent demanded, three grades of certificates, known as the first grade, ; the second, for two years; and the third, for one year. He was vilege of issuing temporary permits to teachers to teach for thirty dgment the interests of education require it.

which the above is a synopsis, did not abrogate the free school ly supplemented it.

JAMES H. GROVES.

e superintendent under the new law was James H. rved from 1875 to 1882. He proved to be a well- siastic officer, and a very important factor in the w law. He thought the true function of public educa- the average man for the duties of citizenship. "We ," says he in his first annual report, "give our utmost urther enlighten public sentiment, not by teaching legislation that *summum bonum* of an education is y to read, write, and cipher, but that it is the duty of

[1] ory of Free Schools of Delaware by J. H. Groves.

the State to make ample provision, not only for the thorough education of the whole people, but that every individual, whatever his circumstances, may have the fullest and freest opportunity to receive that sort of an educational training that will fit him for the duties of citizenship." He opposed compulsory education and favored the frequent examination of teachers. He was a conscientious and persistent visitor to the schools and frequently spoke of this duty as the most important one in the sphere of a superintendent of free schools. His management of the teachers' institutes which he organized brought them success from the beginning.

The new law seems to have sprung into public favor at the outset, for, in his first annual report, the superintendent says:

> I am happy to state, after witnessing the workings of our new system for one full year and a part of the second, that there is a marked change for the better in our public schools.

During the first year 370 schools were operated under 430 teachers, of whom 266 were men and 164 women; 21,587 children were in attendance, with an average of 58 to each school. The total cost, including State appropriations and district taxes, was $216,225.49.

The greatest benefit, however, was derived from the elevation of the grade of work and increased efficiency of the teachers. Previous to 1875 the only requirement for teaching was the good will of the committee.[1] The new law compelled the applicant for a school to have his fitness stamped by the approval of a competent examiner.

Great difficulty was for a time experienced in persuading school committees to improve their old buildings or construct new ones. In the seventh annual report, December 1, 1882, the superintendent calls attention to the subject in the following forcible way: "What we need, perhaps more than anything else, is a strong public sentiment in favor of better school accommodations. A majority of our school buildings are unfit for the purposes for which they are used. They are flimsily constructed, wretchedly arranged, built on small lots and in low places, and contribute in no respect to the comfort of the children." From this time, however, public sentiment was aroused, and during the years 1883 and 1884 more than $129,000 was expended in the erection of better and more commodious school buildings. In 1885 and 1886 more than $125,000 was expended for the same purpose, and since that time the improvement in this line has been so constant that almost every town has now a new and excellent school building.

On April 4, 1881, an act was passed authorizing the governor to appoint an assistant superintendent for the term of one year. The

[1] The principal of the private school which the writer attended in 1872-73 was regarded as a great scholar by all the good people in and near the village. He was sometimes solicited to examine applicants for positions in the district schools thereabouts. I remember that the examination in English grammar on at least one occasion was almost comprehended by the request that the candidate should parse the sentence, "John Smith, the blacksmith, shoes horses."

dent was to receive $1,500 and his assistant $800. ntendent was requested to purchase all the school- he State at the least cost and to sell the same to the pective districts at cost. The clerks were ordered to the children at cost plus expense of carriage, and to over to the State superintendent. The latter was bond of $1,500 that he would keep a faithful account ived and pay it into the hands of the State treasurer. rwards amended so as to place the final distribution nds of retail merchants in the various districts, whose the State depositories. The State fixed the price of ommission being allowed to the retailer. Henry C. Car- rst and only assistant superintendent under this law.

THOMAS N. WILLIAMS.

illiams was appointed superintendent in 1883, and er was reappointed assistant superintendent. Both en had for some time been intimately associated with in the State, and their appointment evoked general During their term of office the advance of public edu- l and continuous. New buildings were constructed, teachers were employed, new methods were adopted, utes increased in usefulness, a legislative appropria- ng been secured for each of them through the efforts ms and Carpenter. Sussex County was redistricted consisting of "three judicious persons" appointed by he State.

Williams remarks in his report issued December 1,

growth of ten years, the Delaware system of free schools is a k. Never before has public sentiment been so strong in favor of ublic schools as to-day. The press of the State is a unit in their

THE LAW OF 1887—SYNOPSIS.

hich the following is a synopsis, was passed April 4,

ntendency abolished.—The offices of State and assistant State su- schools are abolished after the expiration of the term of office of nts, and in lieu thereof county superintendents are appointed.

ns of county superintendents.—County superintendents shall be of r, and well qualified for the office by their mental and scholarly term of office is to be one year. They shall be residents of the y are appointed, and continue such during their term of office.

unty superintendents.—The superintendent shall visit each school r which he is appointed at least twice a year, each visit to be of urs' duration, provided said school is kept open at least eight He shall note in a book to be kept for that purpose the number

of scholars, the condition of school buildings, grounds, and appurtenances, the qualification and efficiency of teachers, the conduct and standing of the scholars, the method of instruction, and the discipline and government of the schools. In the visits of the superintendent to the schools, he shall advise with the teachers respectively, and give them such instructions in regard to discipline and teaching as he may deem necessary, and shall have power to suspend or withdraw any teacher's certificate upon his refusal to comply with the reasonable directions of the superintendent, subject, however, to an appeal, as in other cases. He shall, by every means in his power, strive to promote and advance the cause of education and interest in the schools, and, in order to secure his entire time, he shall not engage in any other business, or pursue any other calling.

SEC. 4. *Teachers' examinations and certificates.*—The superintendent shall examine all persons who apply to him for that purpose, and who propose to teach in the county for which he is superintendent, and any one interested may attend such examination, which may be oral, or by printed or written questions, or partly by each method. These examinations may be at such times and places as the superintendent may appoint. Each applicant who is of good moral character, and who shall be found qualified to teach orthography, reading, writing, mental arithmetic, written arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, English grammar, elements of rhetoric, algebra, geometry, and natural philosophy, shall be recommended to the State board of education for a first-grade certificate, good for three years, unless sooner revoked by the superintendent for cause to be approved by said board. Every applicant who is of good moral character and who shall in examination answer ninety per centum of all questions asked in orthography, reading, writing, mental arithmetic, written arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, and English grammar, shall receive from the superintendent a second-grade certificate, which shall be good for two years, unless sooner revoked for cause to be approved by said board. If any such applicant fail to answer ninety per centum of the questions asked in examination in the branches mentioned for a second-grade certificate, but shall answer at least sixty per centum thereof, he shall receive from the superintendent a third-grade certificate, which shall be good for one year, unless sooner revoked for cause. Any applicant having been refused a certificate may appeal to the State board of education. The superintendent shall also keep an accurate list of all certificates granted by him, with the dates thereof, and the names of the persons to whom granted.

SEC. 5. *Compensation of county superintendents.*—Each one is to receive $1,000 per annum.

SEC. 6. *Employment of teachers.*—It shall not be lawful for the school commissioners of any school district to employ as teacher any person who does not hold a certificate from the superintendent of the county wherein said district is located, and any one so employed shall receive no compensation whatever.

SEC. 7. *Reports of county superintendents.*—These are to be made annually in writing to the president of the State board of education.

SEC. 8. *The State not to furnish text-books.*—The superintendents provided for in this act shall not be allowed to purchase any of the school books used in the public schools of this State at the expense of the State.

SEC. 9. *State board of education.*—The secretary of state, president of Delaware College, and the three superintendents provided for in this act shall constitute a State board of education for this State, which shall meet on the first Tuesday of January in each and every year in the capitol at Dover at two (2) o'clock in the afternoon. The secretary of state shall act as secretary of said board of education. The president of Delaware College shall, by virtue of his office, be president of said board of education. The State board of education shall hear appeals and determine finally all matters of controversy between the superintendents and teachers, or any applicant for a certificate and the superintendents or commissioners, and between school com-

hers. The State board of education shall determine what text-
d in free schools of this State; it shall issue an uniform series of
f teachers, and shall require all records to be kept and returns
g to these forms. The members of the State board of education
ary or compensation for the performance of the duties thereof.
f the president of the State board of education.—This officer is to
port to the governor in writing, for which he is to receive $25.
institutes.—Each superintendent provided for in this act shall
titute in the county of which he is superintendent at least once
hree days' session, at which time all the teachers of the county
unavoidably detained, at which time the superintendent shall
tion to teachers within his power, and such other instructions
visable for the advancement of education, and have a general
s of teachers as to the wants of the various schools.
ection provision is made for a fund of $100, for the expenses of
te.
s not apply to any school or school district managed by an incor-
lucation, unless by special request of said board.

act was added April 12, 1887:

e made immediately upon the passage of this act by the school
local school boards for instructing all pupils in all public schools
the school fund of the State in physiology and hygiene, with
the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics upon
, such instruction to be given orally in primary schools where
.
ll be granted any person to teach in the public schools of the
fter the first day of January, eighteen hundred and eighty-eight,
d a satisfactory examination in physiology and hygiene, with
the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants, and narcotics upon

PRESENT STATUS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

visions of the act of 1887 the governor appointed three
endents, as follows: Herman Bessey for New Castle
rving Handy for Kent County, and James H. Ward for
These gentlemen were among the foremost teachers
l filled their new positions creditably. They were fol-
respectively, by H. D. Griffin, C. C. Tindal, and J. G.
entlemen also have proved to be faithful and successful
y 25, 1893, Mr. Gray resigned office and was succeeded
many of the Lewes public schools. We have it on
f the president of Delaware College that the plan of
endents has commended itself by more than four years'
ience, so that it would be unwise to think now of any
But there can be no doubt that the term of office of the
endents is too short, their salary too small, and the
ission to that office too low. Moreover, the appoint-

he U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1886-87, pp. 120-123.

ment of the superintendents by the governor plunges the sacred cause of public education too deep into the unclean waters of Delaware politics.[1]

The general assembly in 1891 passed an act to provide free text-books for all public school pupils.

The school law makes too great a distinction between second-grade and third-grade certificates. Delaware should also grant life certificates and should follow the example of New York in reciprocity in life certificates with other States.

The professional normal diplomas of other States should be recognized in Delaware. Free trade in normal diplomas would encourage an exodus of good teachers to Delaware. The adoption of the "hundred system," by which all the districts in each hundred would be consolidated into one school district, would solidify the public school system and do much to bring the most illiterate localities up to the standard. There never can be unity in the school system and satisfactory reports of the progress of public education as long as the incorporated school boards remain outside the jurisdiction of the superintendents.

There is great need of a better method of collecting statistics. A uniform series of blanks to be filled out by each teacher would be a decided advantage. A census of the school population should be taken every two years, for it is now impossible to ascertain what percentage of the children of school age are attending school.

Above all, higher salaries should be paid. This throws out educational fossils by attracting capable teachers with modern methods.

The new school law went into effect in 1875. During the first year the disbursements for public schools amounted to $216,225.49; in 1878, to $216,540; in 1884, to $213,104.15; in 1886, to $246,600.62. During the first year 430 teachers were employed, at a cost of $114,027.48; in 1880, 423 teachers, at a cost of $138,818.97; in 1886, 635 teachers, at a cost of $178,085.97.

The failure of the incorporated school boards, which are outside the jurisdiction of the county superintendents, to render full reports and the lack of a uniform method of collecting statistics made it impossible for us to obtain satisfactory data from the biennial report of 1888.[2] We were compelled, therefore, to revert to the report of the last State

[1] In this connection it is interesting to note the custom in other States. Delaware and Florida are the only States in which the county superintendents are appointed by the governor. In Mississippi, New Jersey, and Virginia they are appointed by the State board. The county board elects them in Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, and Indiana; the school directors, in Pennsylvania, and the township superintendents, in Vermont. They are elected at the general election in the following States: California, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, Oregon, South Carolina, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. All of these plans are superior to the Delaware system. (Boone's Education in the United States, 115.)

[2] Biennial report issued December 31, 1888.

superintendent, issued in 1886, for the following statistics concerning the condition of public education in 1886. There were then in the State 422 districts; 562 schools; average number of months taught was 8.42; whole number of white children in the State between the ages of 6 and 21 was 36,468; whole number of white children enrolled in the public schools was 29,421; average number of white children enrolled in each district was 68; whole number of teachers employed in the public schools of the State was 635 (57 per cent of these were women); average monthly salary of each was $32.40; average age of each was 24.9 years.

The total cost of public education in Delaware in 1886 was $222,130.46; total value of public school property was $733,032.

The following tables are taken from the biennial report of the free schools of Delaware for the period ending December 30, 1890:

TABLE 1.—*Schools for white children.*

Counties.	Children of school age, 6–21.	Enrolled.	Average daily attendance.	Schoolhouses.	Sittings.	Teachers.	Days taught.	Average monthly salary.		General average monthly salary.
								Male teachers.	Female teachers.	
Wilmington (city)	10,491	8,033	5,512	23	7,210	158	31,600	$145.00	$45.19	.....
New Castle	6,257	5,049	2,722	85	4,843	113	22,600	44.91	34.12	.....
Kent	7,251	6,024	4,002	97	5,820	133	23,940	.....	.....	$34.96
Sussex	9,590	7,672	4,562	162	7,420	201	27,735	33.52	30.20	31.70
Total	33,589	26,778	16,798	367	25,293	605	105,875	.....	.....	.....

TABLE 2.

Counties.	Value of school buildings.	Value of school grounds.	Value of school furniture and apparatus.
Wilmington (city)	$319,000	$124,037	$58,980.00
New Castle	76,150	25,140	15,925.40
Kent	91,336	14,810	10,922.00
Sussex	62,460	5,758	7,231.00
Total	548,946	169,745	93,058.40

TABLE 3.

The following recent statistics are taken from Census Bulletin 53, April 20, 1891:

DELAWARE.

1880, population	146,608	Enrolled in public schools	26,412
1890, population	168,493	Enrolled in public schools	31,434
Gain of population ...per cent..	14.93	Gain of enrollment in public schools ...per cent..	19.01

The statistics for the public schools of Delaware are from the manuscript report of A. N. Raub, president of the State board of education. The parochial schools are Catholic.

Public schools of Delaware for the year ended June 30, 1890.

Counties.	Teachers.							Pupils.						
	Aggregate.	White.			Colored.			Aggregate.	White.			Colored.		
		Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.		Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.
The State.	701	605	187	418	96	36	60	31,434	26,778	13,228	13,550	4,656	2,348	2,308
Kent	163	133	40	93	30	16	14	7,525	6,024	2,946	3,078	1,501	780	721
New Castle	309	271	18	253	38	5	33	15,105	13,082	6,462	6,620	2,023	1,005	1,018
Sussex	229	201	129	72	28	15	13	8,804	7,672	3,080	3,852	1,132	563	569

SUMMARY OF PRIVATE AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS REPORTED TO MARCH 5, 1891.

Schools:														
Private	65	62	20	42	3	....	3	1,126	993	517	476	133	56	77
Parochial	36	36	3	33	....	....	....	1,712	1,712	840	872	....	....	....

SCHOOL FUND.

All money appropriated to, or invested for, "the fund for establishing schools in the State of Delaware" must belong to "*the school fund of the State of Delaware.*"

The State treasurer for the time being is the trustee of this fund, with power to receive, sue for, and recover any money or property bequeathed, given, or belonging to said fund. He is to vote as holder of any stocks belonging to said funds; to lease any real estate devised, given, or belonging thereto, for terms not exceeding 3 years; to distrain for and collect the rents thereon accruing, and to improve and manage such estate as may be proper.

The public faith is solemnly pledged for the faithful appropriation of all bequests or gifts to said fund, towards the establishment and support of schools for instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and such other branches of knowledge as belong to a good English education. *No part of said fund may be applied to any academy, college, or university.*

The trustee of the school fund must annually, upon settling his account with a committee of the legislature, publish the particulars of such settlement, and mention the name of any person who has made a gift or bequest to said fund, with the amount.

Other sources of the fund are: The proceeds of marriage and tavern licenses; one-fourth of all the money arising from licenses for auctioneering; foreign life-insurance agency; vending of goods, wares, and merchandise by samples; keeping of traveling jacks or stallions; keeping eating houses; taking photographs; acting as brokers; real-estate agency; exhibiting circuses; practicing jugglery; selling vinous, spirituous, or malt liquors; also one-fourth of the money from fees on commissions issued to prothonotaries, clerks of the peace, recorders of deeds, clerks of the orphans' court, and sheriffs. These and all other moneys or property given, appropriated, or belonging to said fund are dedicated to public education in the State of Delaware.[1]

In 1829 the annual accretions to the fund since the passage of "the marriage and tavern license act" of 1796 amounted to $158,160.15. After 1829 the interest of this sum and the revenue arising from the sale of marriage and tavern licenses were annually disbursed to the free schools of the State.

By act of Congress passed June 23, 1836, authorizing the deposit with the States of the surplus fund in the Treasury of the United

[1] Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1885–86, p. 71.

$286,751.49 was placed to the credit of Delaware.[1] nbly immediately directed that it be placed in the school fund in 1889 was invested as follows:

Bank stock, at $36 per share	$180,000
Bank stock, at $50 per share	121,950
nk of Delaware stock, at $465 per share	17,205
uyrna stock, at $50 per share	5,700
onal Bank stock, at $36 per share	9,144
y	5,000
d	156,750
nts for use of school fund	$495,749

abulated statement concerning the school fund and is taken from the State auditor's report for the fiscal nber 31, 1891:

f receipts for the fiscal year ending December 31, 1891.

ry at last settlement	$20,410.45
w Castle County, licenses	22,002.92
w Castle County, licenses	67,768.27
ent County, licenses	5,652.33
ussex County, licenses	4,089.02
ner, tax and licenses	3,508.04
, dividend on 254 shares of stock	952.50
ver, dividend on 5,000 shares of stock	10,800.00
ver, dividend on 1,901 shares of stock	5,712.00
Castle, dividend on 290 shares of stock	885.00
rgetown, dividend on 240 shares of stock	720.00
aware, dividend on 37 shares of stock	1,480.00
yrna, dividend on 114 shares of stock	228.00
es	227.50
llowed on books purchased	18.12
ted, Sussex County	163.32
school-fund bond, $156,750, at 6 per cent	9,405.00
by the State	25,000.00
nd balance	$179,812.47

xpenditures for the fiscal year ending December 31, 1891.

g School for Feeble-minded Children[1]	$1,017.81
moval of Essie Cathcart	4.97
for the Deaf and Dumb	1,530.00
ion for the Instruction of the Blind	710.40
ion for the Deaf and Dumb	100.00
w Castle County	47,886.58
nt County	33,095.56
sex County	44,051.50
count books, etc	300.00
	300.00
oks, for shipments made to the school districts	17,238.20
	$146,344.97

her feeble-minded, deaf, dumb, and blind in Pennsylvania. s of her own for them.

1890.			
Dec. 31.	Balance in the treasury	$20,410.45	
1891.	Total receipts	159,402.02	
			$179,812.47
1891.	Total expenditures	$146,244.97	
Dec. 31.	Balance in the treasury	33,567.50	
			$179,812.47

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The importance of a "teachers' institute" was recognized by the educational conventions which followed close upon the passage of the law of 1829, but none was organized until 1875.

The first teachers' institute was held at Middletown, October 28, 29, and 30, 1875, and since that date each county in the State has held one annually. Superintendent Groves says: "The first one, held at Middletown, was an entire success." To meet the expenses incurred in securing the services of able instructors the State appropriates annually $100 to each county. This sum, however, is not sufficient, and there is a general demand for such an annual appropriation as will enable these meetings to continue unembarrassed the valuable work which they are doing for education. The law of 1887 requires each superintendent to "hold a teachers' institute in the county of which he is superintendent at least once a year, of at least three days' session, at which time all the teachers in the county shall attend unless unavoidably detained."

STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The first meeting for the organization of a State teachers' association was held December 30, 1875, at schoolhouse No. 1 in Wilmington. Among the prominent educators of the State present were D. W. Harlan, superintendent of the public schools of Wilmington; Prof. E. D. Porter, of Delaware College, and W. A. Reynolds. An adjourned meeting was held at Georgetown during the session of the first county institute in 1876. A permanent organization was not effected, however, until the first annual meeting of the teachers of the State at Rehoboth, August 28, 1879.

For several years thereafter the annual session at Rehoboth was attended by the progressive teachers of the State. Interest having declined of late years, it was thought best to change the place of meeting. Therefore the association held a joint meeting with the Maryland Teachers' Association, at the Blue Mountain House, Maryland, near Pen-Mar, July 9, 10, 11, 1889.

The following persons have been presidents of the association: W. H. Purnell, 1879; W. A. Reynolds, 1880; J. M. Williams, 1881; H. C. Carpenter, 1882; McKendree Downham, 1883; James E. Carroll, 1884; Levin Irving Handy, 1885; W. L. Gooding, 1886; John L. Thompson, 1887; Herman Bessey, 1888; A. H. Berlin, 1889.[1]

[1] Attempts were made in 1847 and 1851 to organize an "association" in New Castle County, but they came to naught.

DELAWARE STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY.

The Delaware State Normal University was organized November 19, 1866, and incorporated January 23, 1867. The necessity of an institution "wherein students might receive a professional education which should peculiarly qualify them for instructing and disciplining youth" had been felt before 1866. It was believed, moreover, that the establishment of a normal school would be the most efficient means for elevating the standard and increasing the usefulness of common schools.

As the school was to be commenced without any aid from the State,[1] and to be dependent upon the voluntary patronage of the people, a subscription of more than twenty scholarships was secured before the school was opened. Besides the normal-school course, the institution provided for a business education in its business department, and had, also, a department in which teachers were prepared to take charge of academies and high schools. The catalogue of the school names the 28 members who composed the board of trustees, a visiting committee of 9, and a faculty of 6, one of whom was a woman.

For admission to the normal course the candidate had to be 14 years of age, of good health and moral character, and able to pass an examination in reading, spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, grammar, and geography.

The course of study required three years and included, besides the usual high-school branches, the following subjects: School government, principles of education, theory and practice of teaching, school economy, mercantile calculations, commercial rules, bookkeeping, business correspondence, and extemporaneous speaking.

The average annual expenses for tuition were $54; text-books, $7.25; board, $138.75; total, $200.

The history of this institution is not known, but the act of incorporation was repealed on March 29, 1871.[2]

DELAWARE SUMMER SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS.

Levin Irving Handy, superintendent of public schools of Kent County, in 1888 opened a "Summer School for Teachers" in the public-school building at Smyrna. He was assisted in the work by W. G. Lake, then principal of Smyrna public schools, and by W. J. Shearer, jr., of the Carlisle (Pa.) public schools. Fifty-nine students were enrolled. The success of the first session prompted a second, which was held from July 15 to August 16, 1889. The corps of instructors was enlarged by

[1] An annual allowance for a time was made from the State treasury of 50 cents for each scholar in Kent and Sussex, and 30 cents for each scholar in New Castle County. (Barnard, XXIV, 239.)

[2] Barnard's Journal of Education, XVII, 807; Laws of Delaware, XIV, 230.

the addition of Dr. L. R. Klemm,[1] then principal of the Cincinnati Technical School. The school was divided into three classes, according to the three grades of certificates provided by the law of 1887. Sixty students were in attendance. The tuition fee was $10. The school served as an excellent supplement to the annual institutes.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF WILMINGTON.[2]

Public education in Wilmington dates from 1829, when, under the school act of that date, the city was divided into ten districts. In the following year the eleventh district united with the tenth in the support of a school. Erastus Edgarton was appointed teacher of the boys, at $100 a quarter, and Hannah Monaghan teacher of the girls, at $75 a quarter. The first public school in Wilmington was opened in the old Academy building, on Market street. In 1834 eight of the ten districts were united and organized as the United School Districts of New Castle County; and a schoolhouse was built at the southwest corner of French and Sixth streets. In 1836 the whole number of pupils in the schools of the united school district was 716. They were instructed in all the "common branches" and some "take lessons in definitions, grammar, and English classics. In the girls' school two days of each week were devoted to needlework, which was attended with good satisfaction."

At a meeting of citizens in 1851 it was unanimously agreed that "the city needed a better system of schools." An act was passed February 9, 1852, establishing the school system now in force in Wilmington. The interests of the public schools are committed to a board elected by the citizens, with power to establish schools and provide money for their support by requisition on the city authorities.[3] April 6, 1852, school district No. 9 "was united with the rest of the city of Wilmington."

The second story of the building corner of Tenth and King streets was granted by the city council as a schoolroom. The school building at French and Sixth streets was ordered to be repaired. On May 10, 1852, the building committee bought as a site for a new schoolhouse the lots on Washington street between Second and Third. The city council appropriated $10,000 annually for school purposes. The increased number of applications for admission to the public schools made it necessary to provide more schoolhouses, and a building on Sixth street was secured and called School No. 5. In October, 1852,

[1] Dr. L. R. Klemm is the author of "Chips from a Teacher's Workshop," and "European Schools; or, What I saw in the Schools of Germany, France, Austria, and Switzerland." The latter was published as volume XII in the International Education Series, edited by William T. Harris, LL. D.

[2] Supt. D. W. Harlan has kindly furnished many of the facts which follow. He has corroborated the sketch in Scharf, II, 692, which has been much used.

[3] Barnard's Journal of Education, XXIV, 239.

was elected principal of the boys' department, at a
r, and Laura Osgood principal of the girls' depart-
r. In 1861 there were eight schoolhouses in use in
ch were the property of the board. There were then
ndance, and 32 teachers were employed. The cost
chools was $24,930.

, the first superintendent of the public schools of
raduate of Oberlin College. He has served with
since January, 1871. This estimate of his services,
the New England Journal of Education, December
pen of Rev. A. D. Mayo, the well-known educator:

ton, Del., occupies a peculiar situation in relation to the
ast. Being one of the line of cities from New York to Wash-
movements are largely affected by what is transpiring in
f city of the little State of Delaware—a State which has
ee-school idea, and is still hampered by ancient prejudice—
del for its smaller cities, and is the natural headquarters of
gh the Commonwealth. For this achievement it is greatly
superintendent of schools, Mr. David W. Harlan. Mr. Har-
ype of school superintendents as Wilson of Washington, Cald-
he lamented Mallon of Atlanta; who, with a thorough grasp
stem of city graded schools, and a clear apprehension of the
ic education, are content to work in a spirit of self-sacrificing
eliable sympathy with teachers, and generous forbearance
nd intriguers which never fails, in the end, to secure the
ll-ordered community. * * * Wilmington has reason to
tendent of schools; and many of her teachers, as we can tes-
are of excellent quality.

nnovations have been introduced either by Supt.
his influence: Teachers are granted time to visit
e purpose of acquiring new ideas and methods. A
teachers has been established in which all candi-
had one year's successful experience are required
s in training and on trial under the eye of a skill-
ore than ten years merit has been the only road to
teacher on the list of accepted applicants receives
romotion in turn, unless unfitness has been evinced.
system is in use.

ered into mathematics through the Grubé method.
e of the first cities in the land to introduce object
y schools, and in 1888 drawing also was added to
r the first time in the history of the public schools
teachers held an institute in November, 1889. Its
in a great measure due to Supt. Harlan.

WILMINGTON HIGH SCHOOL.

lding, one of the finest in the country, was erected
th and Adams streets, at a cost, when completed

WILMINGTON HIGH SCHOOL.

[redacted]

nd furnished, of $70,514.88. The boys' high school dates from 1871; .e girls' high school from 1872. In October, 1889, a manual training , hool was opened in the basement of the high-school building. The 'ollowing is a list of the principals of the boys' high school: Loring H. Barnum, 1871–'72; Albert F. Tenney, 1872–'73; Stansbury J. Willey, 1873–'82; Charles D. Raine, 1882; William W. Birdsall, 1882–'85; Thomas L. Graham, 1885–'88; A. H. Berlin, 1888 —.

The superintendent's report of August 22, 1892, gives the following facts concerning the public schools of Wilmington:

Total population of Wilmington according to census of 1890	61,437
Number of schoolhouses in use	27
High school for boys	1
High school for girls	1
Grammar schools	4
Primary schools	19
Whole number of teachers in day schools	193
Whole number of pupils enrolled during the year in day schools	9,463
Average daily attendance	6,776

The salaries of teachers range from $300 to $1,700 a year.

Growth of the city school system from 1873 to 1890.

For the year ending July 1—	Number of schoolhouses.	Number of sittings.	Whole number enrolled.	Average number belonging.	Average attendance of pupils.	Number of teachers.	For the year ending July 1—	Number of schoolhouses.	Number of sittings.	Whole number enrolled.	Average number belonging.	Average attendance of pupils.	Number of teachers.
1873	15	4,502	5,920	3,650	3,355	82	1882	19	5,920	7,123	5,191	4,600	117
1874	16	4,728	5,776	3,843	3,505	90	1883	20	6,713	7,675	5,823	5,197	122
1875	17	4,932	6,033	3,813	3,505	98	1884	22	7,090	8,259	6,374	5,718	155
1876	16	4,890	5,947	4,102	3,720	97	1885	23	7,228	8,718	6,663	5,974	161
1877	18	5,364	6,687	4,582	4,158	106	1886	24	7,665	8,677	6,876	6,237	162
1878	18	5,648	6,831	4,879	4,435	110	1887	24	7,640	8,814	6,813	6,170	167
1879	18	5,648	6,802	4,915	4,387	112	1888	24	7,510	8,694	6,505	5,809	162
1880	18	5,704	6,963	4,932	4,427	113	1889	25	7,952	8,994	6,880	6,233	168
1881	19	5,864	7,065	5,101	4,385	116	1890	26	8,008	9,184	7,001	6,193	175

Increase of attendance from 1873 to 1889.

For the year ending July 1—	Number of teachers.	Average attendance of pupils.	Average number belonging.	Whole number belonging.	For the year ending July 1—	Number of teachers.	Average attendance of pupils.	Average number belonging.	Whole number belonging.
1873	82	3,355	3,650	5,920	1882	117	4,600	5,191	7,123
1874	90	3,505	3,843	5,776	1883	122	5,197	5,823	7,675
1875	98	3,505	3,813	6,033	1884	155	5,718	6,374	8,259
1876	97	3,720	4,102	5,947	1885	161	5,974	6,663	8,718
1877	106	4,158	4,582	6,687	1886	162	6,237	6,876	8,677
1878	110	4,435	4,879	6,831	1887	167	6,170	6,813	8,814
1879	112	4,387	4,915	6,802	1888	162	5,809	6,505	8,694
1880	113	4,427	4,932	6,963	1889	168	6,233	6,880	8,994
1881	116	4,385	5,101	7,065					

ble shows the attendance at the two high schools

Boys' high school.					Girls' high school.					
ber belonging any month.	Average number belonging.	Average attendance.	Number received from lower public schools.	Number that quit the school before the end of the year.	Number enrolled.	Largest average number belonging any month.	Average number belonging.	Average attendance.	Number received from lower public schools.	Number that quit the school before the end of the year.
168	147	136	76	65	182	151	131	122	47	63
157	146	136	35	67	190	152	140	131	59	62
141	134	125	50	55	181	142	139	131	33	55
151	137	127	75	62	180	155	143	134	56	42
150	127	127	77	81	189	160	147	137	50	49
165	145	134	76	72	202	165	154	142	75	71
166	146	133	69	46	189	161	153	141	69	43
154	138	128	33	51	181	172	147	136	41	47
162	151	142	98	51	210	178	166	153	97	43
173	160	151	56	42	200	175	164	152	36	46
209	172	167	114	70	238	211	181	173	92	51
205	189	178	89	77	281	230	233	222	116	74
175	158	147	86	67	298	249	232	221	103	79
206	176	169	99	57	300	253	236	226	100	86

rriculum is in use in the Boys' High School:

ra, natural philosophy, physiology, Latin (begun), and lan-

ra, geometry, rhetoric, chemistry, Cæsar.

h literature, mensuration, trigonometry, physical geography,

tic, Virgil, and science of government.

udy in the Girls' High School agrees with the above

sion of chemistry and mensuration.

CATION OF THE COLORED PEOPLE.

te the Negro in Delaware date from the beginning of

tury, when the Society for the Propagation of the

the missionaries to instruct slaves in the catechism.

were neither successful nor enduring. Before 1846

ade by the colored people to educate their children,

there were only seven schools for colored people in

at Wilmington, two at Camden, one at Odessa, and

In December of that year, and shortly after the estab-

edmen's Bureau at Washington, several philanthropic

the house of William S. Hilles, an influential cit-

n, for the purpose of discussing plans for the improve-

ols and for the promotion of the education of colored

ks later, December 27, 1866, a public meeting was

ington Institute, at which addresses were made

k done by the association organized in Baltimore a

bted to Henry C. Conrad, Esq., for many years actuary of the

aware, for the facts which follow.

few weeks before. Francis T. King and Dr. James Carey Thomas, eminent citizens of Baltimore, rendered valuable assistance in starting the movement, which terminated in the organization, on January 3, 1867, of the "Delaware Association for the Moral Improvement and Education of the Colored People."

The association at once undertook to accumulate a fund from which to pay the salaries of teachers. Contributions were solicited and received. The Freedmen's Bureau donated sufficient lumber to erect several schoolhouses. Rev. John G. Furey was appointed to superintend the work, and at the end of the first six months the number of schools had increased to 15; 7 in New Castle County, 4 in Kent, and 4 in Sussex; and more than 700 pupils had been enrolled. At first the teacher was paid a monthly salary from the funds of the association, while the colored people in the vicinity of the school were expected to furnish him with board and pay the incidental current expenses of the school. This they did by means of weekly payments of tuition by the pupils.

The agent of the association, who is termed the actuary, superintended the erection of buildings, appointed teachers to the several schools, and superintended the conduct of the schools. In 1875 there were 28 schools outside of Wilmington, and in that city the board of public education had taken the colored schools under their control. During the preceding eight years the association, by the help of the colored people, had supported these schools unaided by the State.

The general assembly of 1875 passed an act providing for the taxing of colored people for the support of their own schools. The funds thus accumulated were paid to the association and by it distributed equally among the several schools. The amount proved sufficient to meet only about one-third of the expenses, so that it rested upon the colored people to raise the remaining two-thirds by personal contributions and subscriptions from friends. From 1875 to 1881 they bore the entire burden of supporting their own schools, for the income of the association had diminished so that it barely sufficed to meet the expenses of the home office.

In 1881 the general assembly passed an act appropriating $2,400 annually from the State treasury to be distributed pro rata among the colored schools of each county. In 1883 this sum was increased to $5,000, and the State superintendent of public schools was at the same time given a general supervision over colored schools. The general assembly in 1887 increased the annual appropriation to $6,000, and gave to the county superintendents control and supervision of the colored schools in their respective counties. The appropriation was increased in 1891 to $9,000.

The first actuary of the colored schools was Rev. J. G. Furey, who rendered the cause valuable service. The labors of his successor,

, were likewise fruitful. Abbie C. Peckham was to 1874. She was succeeded by Mary S. Casperson, followed by Mrs. Kate Irvine. In 1876 Henry C. d actuary.[1]

hools in operation, with a total enrollment of 1,197. able is taken from Mr. Conrad's biennial report for December 30, 1890:

Schools for colored children.

	Average daily attendance.	Number school-houses.	Number teachers.	Number sittings.	Days taught.	Average monthly salary of teachers.	Received State appropriations.	Received taxes.	Total receipts.
51	631	6	17	798	2,400	$40.79	.....	.....	.....
72	595	22	22	*575	1,890	21.50	$2,000.00	$474.45	$2,474.45
91	561	30	30	*900	2,700	22.00	2,000.00	680.73	2,680.73
92	674	28	28	*720	2,520	23.50	2,000.00	1,036.62	3,036.62
96	2,451	85	96	3,003	10,510	.....	6,000.00	.....	.....

* Estimated.

varies in length from three to eight months, but the SS was four and one-half months.

hers hold under their own direction annual institutes, d helpful to the cause. Pains have been taken to achers well qualified for the work. The Biblical In- re, Md., Lincoln University, in Chester County, Pa., for Colored Youth" at Philadelphia, Pa., have fur- achers. Teachers have also been sent forth by the emselves.

was born in Bridesburg, Pa., April 25, 1852. In 1856 he re- to Wilmington, where he has since resided. He was grad- rd Law School in 1873 and the following year was admitted to e took an active part in politics, and in 1879 was appointed sioner and supervisor of elections, and was elected a member tion. In 1880 he became editor of the Morning News, in the h he was largely instrumental, and made it the leading Re- in the State. Two years later he abandoned editorship and ice, which now claims all his attention. In 1881 Mr. Conrad board of education, and in the following year of the city was the choice of the Republican party for mayor of the city

been an active member of the Delaware Historical Society, ressed historical, educational, and press associations, and has permanent historical and genealogical value to the literature of d's brochure on "The Press of Delaware" will be found in nes Kunders," Mr. Conrad's latest production, is an excellent rk.

The actuary reports that in his visits to the schools he has found the pupils, "almost without exception, orderly, respectful to their teachers, applying themselves diligently to study while in their seats, and, as a rule, prompt and correct in the answers given to questions addressed to them during recitations." The actuary, who knows more about the colored schools of Delaware than any other living man, throws considerable light upon the much-mooted question of "mixed schools" in Delaware. He remarks:

I have never found any disposition among the colored people to desire their children educated in the same school building with white children, or to claim "mixed schools," as has so often been asserted. On the contrary, I believe the overwhelming and practically unanimous sentiment among colored people is emphatically in favor of separate and distinct schools for their own children.

Whatever advance has been made in the education of the Delaware Negro during the last seventeen years is largely due to the unremunerated but untiring efforts of Henry C. Conrad. The colored people have expressed their appreciation of his services and their regard for his personality in costly testimonials, and to him they continue to look for inspiration and encouragement.

The following laws relating to schools for colored persons are in force in Delaware: [1]

The levy courts in the several counties of this State are required to levy annually, in the month of April, a tax of 30 cents in the hundred dollars, and so pro rata, on the assessments of the real and personal property and poll of colored persons, as they stand upon the assessment lists of the several hundreds, which tax is to be set apart as a distinct fund for the maintenance of schools for colored youth in the State.

All moneys collected under this act are to be paid, as other taxes, to the county treasurer in each county, to be kept by him as a separate fund, and to be paid by him to the treasurer of the "Delaware Association for the Education of Colored People."

The fund arising from the provisions of this act and paid to said association is to go to the support and maintenance of schools for colored youth throughout the State, and to be distributed by the said association. The treasurer of said association is to give bond to the State of Delaware, in the penal sum of $2,000, for the faithful application of the moneys received under this act.

To these should be added those already noted above.

[1] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1885-'86, p. 71.

CHAPTER XI.

PHY OF THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN DELAWARE.

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attempt to write a history of education in Delaware, erefore resorted to original sources. His ambition comprehensive and accurate work in order that re writers may consult it with confidence. To this imes sacrified style and order that the sources may ves. If he has sometimes failed, he believes the fail- want of materials.

visited from end to end, and almost every educator ication in the State was consulted. The libraries of ltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Wilmington Even the excellent collection of Americana in the Wisconsin State Historical Society at Madison, l materials. Special mention should be made of houses of sources, the Peabody Library, of Baltimore; e Historical Society of Pennsylvania, at Philadel- ains the Charlemagne Tower collection of Colonial of the Historical Society of Delaware, at Wilming- ary of the National Bureau of Education. The great- received from the records of the early settlers, the e minutes of educational institutions, catalogues, s, and interviews with prominent men.

whom the writer is indebted would unduly prolong t he would be ungracious and ungrateful not to men- nrad, actuary of the colored schools, and Stephen B. North Carolina, to both of whom the writer is deeply h information and advice; Hon. Joseph P. Comegys, ef justice of Delaware, and Hon. George P. Fisher, f the Treasury at Washington, both of whom supplied schools in Dover; Frederick D. Stone, librarian of the of Pennsylvania, who gave information concerning A. N. Raub, PH. D., president of Delaware College; , esq., Dr. William H. Purnell, and Prof. Charles S. hom contributed facts to the sketch of Delaware Col- lan, superintendent of Wilmington public schools; H. D., principal of Wilmington Conference Academy;

Herman Bessey, ex-superintendent of public schools in New Castle County; Dr. David L. Mustard, the late Dr. D. Hayes Agnew, Dr. Epher Whitaker, the late Prof. Eben Norton Horsford, E. N. Powell, esq., W. Lee Cannon, esq., and last, but by no means least, Mrs. Mary A. Powell, the writer's mother.

The following bibliography includes all the sources of material, except such works as Winsor's and Bancroft's, which furnished material for the early history of Delaware:

A History of New Sweden; or, The Settlements on the River Delaware. By Israel Acrelius, provost of the Swedish churches in America, and rector of the Old Swedes' Church, Wilmington, Del. Translated from the Swedish, with an introduction and notes, by William M. Reynolds, D. D. (Philadelphia, 1874.)

This work, written about 1758, gave the most complete and accurate account of the Swedes in Delaware till then published. It contains occasional references to schools and schoolmasters.

A Short History of the Province of New Sweden. By Thomas Campanius Holm.

The work was written in 1702, and translated by Peter S. Du Ponceau in 1834 (Philadelphia). The author was a grandson of Rev. Johan Campanius Holm, who accompanied Governor Printz to New Sweden in 1643. His narrative is based upon manuscripts of his grandfather, oral communications of his father, and the writings of Governor Rising and Engineer Lindström. It is occasionally inaccurate; notably the statement that the Swedes settled on the Delaware as early as 1631. There are but few facts concerning education.

The Annals of the Swedes on the Delaware. By the Rev. John Curtis Clay, rector of the Swedish churches in Philadelphia and its vicinity.

The first edition (Philadelphia, 1835) contains also the charter of the United Swedish Churches, but in the second edition (1858) the charter was omitted. Besides much of the matter given in Holm and Acrelius, there is also a short account of the colony from manuscripts of the Rev. Andreas Rudman (he came to New Sweden in 1697), translated by Rev. Nicholas Collin. Considerable light is thrown on education at Christina, now Wilmington.

A history of the original settlements on the Delaware, from its discovery by Hudson to the colonization under William Penn, to which is added an account of the ecclesiastical affairs of the Swedish settlers and a history of Wilmington from its earliest settlement to the present time. By Benjamin Ferris. Wilmington, 1846.

This gives a full account of New Sweden from works already published in English, but has little to say concerning education.

Annals of Pennsylvania from the discovery of the Delaware. By Samuel Hazard. 1609–1682. Philadelphia, 1850.

A comprehensive history of New Sweden, based upon the early records at Albany and manuscripts of the American Philosophical Society. It throws some light upon Dutch and English as well as Swedish education.

The records of Holy Trinity (Old Swedes) Church, Wilmington, Del., from 1697 to 1773. Translated from the Original Swedish by Horace

ract of the English records from 1773 to 1810. Pub-
orical Society of Delaware. Wilmington, 1890.
edly the best source of information concerning the industrial
development of the Swedish settlement at Wilmington. Its
epends upon the fact that it was written, diary-like, from day
to correct as well as supplement earlier narratives. The char-
ers, progress of the schools, and even of individual pupils are
ed.

Pennsylvania and Delaware. By Rev. S. F. Hotch-
elphia, 1890.
the Swedish clergy is narrated, but there is nothing new con-
.

pire in America, containing the history of the discov-
ogress, and present state of all the British colonies
nd islands of America. By J. Oldmixon. 2 vols.

or nothing concerning education in Delaware, but describes
d other towns as they were at that date.

rchives, second series, Vol. v. Papers relating to
Delaware, 1614–1682. Harrisburg, 1877.
ome information concerning Dutch schools.

ative to the Colonial History of the State of New
ured by John Romeyn Brodhead in Holland, Eng-
Edited by E. B. O'Callaghan. Albany, 1856.
ne light on education among the Dutch.

State of New York. By John Romeyn Brodhead. 2
1859.
t of the relations between the Swedes and the Dutch.

tory of Long Island. 2 vols. New York, 1873.
Pennsylvania, in North America, 1681–1742. By Rob-
. Philadelphia, 1797.
Religious Society of Friends. From its rise to the
mnel M. Janney. 4 vols. Philadelphia, 1867.
llowing book describe Quaker education at Philadelphia.

the Society of Friends in America. By James Bow-
ndon, 1850.
delphia and Pennsylvania in the Olden Time. By
2 vols. Philadelphia, 1850.
resting facts concerning early education.

English Church History, being the minutes of the
ting Christian Knowledge, for the years 1698–1704,
tracts of correspondents' letters during part of same
y Rev. Edmund McClure, M. A. London, 1888.
he origin of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in
does also the following monograph.

Development in the Province of North Carolina. By
, PH. D. Published in the Johns Hopkins University
and Political Science, Volume x, Nos. v–vi, 1892.

Historical Account of the Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. By David Humphreys, D. D. London, 1730. Reports of the same society.

This describes the missionary and educational services in Delaware of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts.

Duke of York's Book of Laws, 1676–1682. Published together with "Charter to William Penn and Laws of the Province of Pennsylvania, passed between 1682 and 1700." Harrisburg, 1879.

This furnishes legislative provisions for education in Pennsylvania and Delaware from 1676 to 1700.

Laws of Delaware from the separation from Pennsylvania until the present time.

The most valuable collection of early Delaware laws is included in "The Charlemagne Tower Collection of American Colonial Laws," and consists of laws dated 1734, 1741, 1752, 1763, 1780, 1781, 1782. Mr. Charlemagne Tower (1809–1889) was a cultured and wealthy Philadelphia citizen who devoted no small part of his fortune to the collection of American colonial laws. After his death the laws were presented by his widow to the Pennsylvania Historical Society, which had them handsomely bound, encased, and stored in their library as "The Charlemagne Tower Collection of American Colonial Laws." This collection, with the volumes the society can add to it, embraces the first extant edition of laws issued by each of the colonies which formed the United States, except Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Maryland, the first edition of the laws of Vermont, as well as those of the British and Danish West Indies. The first edition is supplemented in almost every case not only by all or nearly all of the subsequent revisions issued prior to 1800, but, with the exception of North Carolina and Georgia, by those rarest of rare books, the original session laws. All the Delaware revisions are in the collection, as well as a number of session laws. This splendid collection of original statutes will henceforth prove one of the most valuable sources for the student of our colonial history. Of the laws of Delaware, that dated 1763 was the only one found throwing light on early education.

Minutes of the Provincial Council of Pennsylvania, from the organization to the termination of the Proprietary Government. 3 vols. Harrisburg, 1838.

This gives many facts concerning English education.

Minutes of the General Assembly of Delaware. Journal of the House of Representatives, especially Vol. II, which contains governors' messages.

Historical Collections Relating to the American Colonial Church. Edited by William Stevens Perry, D. D.

Vol. V describes the early efforts of missionaries in Delaware to instruct children and servants. Education at New Castle receives special attention.

Records of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America: embracing the Minutes of the Presbytery of Philadelphia, from A. D. 1706 to 1816; Minutes of the Synod of Philadelphia, from A. D. 1717 to 1758; Minutes of the Synod of New York, from A. D. 1745 to 1758; Minutes of the Synod of Philadelphia and New York, from A. D. 1758 to 1788. Philadelphia, 1841.

well as the following, the influence of the Presbyterian Church
terest in higher education is portrayed, and the beginnings of
are outlined.

e Presbyterian Church in America, from its Origin
0, with Biographical Sketches of its Early Ministers.
rd Webster. Philadelphia, 1857.
erian Encyclopædia. Article on E. W. Gilbert.
ls of the American Pulpit.
give sketches of prominent Presbyterian educators in Delaware.
nd Memoirs of North Carolina and Eminent North
John H. Wheeler. Columbus, Ohio, 1884.
Carolina (1584–1729). 2 vols. By Francis L. Hawks.
., 1857.
of Wilmington in Familiar Village Tales, Ancient
zabeth Montgomery. Philadelphia, 1851.
h in materials concerning old schools and schoolmasters in Wil-

nson Pamphlets.
me light on Wilmington schools of the last century. They
cessible to the writer by the efficient librarian of the Pennsyl-
Society, Mr. Frederick D. Stone. Some of them will be pub-
mentary volume to the life of John Dickinson, by Dr. Charles

nia Magazine of History and Biography. Vol. VIII,
Matthew Wilson, D. D., of Lewes, Delaware. By the
Neill. Vol. V, 1881, 412 *et seq.* Diary of Capt. John

material for the history of Newark Academy.
Printing in America. By Isaiah Thomas, LL. D. 2
Y., 1874.
s Vols. V and VI of the Transactions and Collections of the
arian Society. It furnishes a few facts concerning printing in

laware. By Henry C. Conrad, 1882. *See* Appendix.
nal of Education, Vols. I, II, XVI, XVII, XVIII, XXIV,

Department of Education, especially Barnard's for
Commissioner's reports during the last twelve years.
bundant material for the history of public education.
superintendents of public schools in Delaware. His-
hools of Delaware. By J. H. Groves, superintendent
Delaware from 1875 to 1882. Published in the annual

llent sketch, although brief, and has been freely used by the

History of Education in Pennsylvania. Lancaster,

t recent book touching early education in Delaware, but its
ened by an absence of footnotes and the failure to cite sources.

Historical and Biographical Encyclopædia of Delaware. By J. M. McCarter and B. F. Jackson. Wilmington, Del., 1882.

This gives a short and fairly accurate sketch of public education, colored schools, Wilmington Conference Academy, and Delaware College.

J. Thomas Scharf: History of Delaware. 2 Vols. Philadelphia, 1888.

This is the largest and best history of Delaware ever written. The subject of education is treated fairly and accurately. Frequent use has been made of it in the preparation of this monograph. Luff's Biography and Lednum's Rise of Methodism, quoted by Scharf, were not accessible to the writer.

Newark, Delaware: Past and Present. By Egbert G. Handy and James L. Vallandigham, jr. Newark, 1882.

This brochure of 91 pages contains interesting and trustworthy sketches of Delaware College and Newark Academy.

Methodism of the Peninsula. By Robert W. Todd. Methodist Book Rooms, Philadelpha, 1886.

The History of Federal and State Aid to Higher Education in the United States. By Frank W. Blackmar, PH. D., Bureau of Education. Circular of Information No. 1, 1890.

Education in the United States: A History from the Earliest Settlements. By Richard A. Boone. International Education Series, Vol. XI, 1889.

Minutes of the board of trustees and minutes of the faculty of Delaware College, from its foundation to the present time.

These were placed in the hands of the writer through the courtesy of George G. Evans, esq., secretary of the board of trustees. The history of Delaware College was based upon these and the catalogues on file.

Minutes of the board of trustees of Newark Academy.

These furnished valuable material in writing a sketch of that institution.

A historical sketch of Delaware College by President W. H. Purnell, LL. D., Delaware College Review, July, 1884.

Catalogues of Delaware College and its literary societies.

The Delaware Gazette, 1847. Series of letters on Delaware College.

The Baltimore Sun, April, 1853. Articles on the Roach case.

American Almanac. Statistics on education.

Niles's Register. Statistics on education.

New England Journal of Education, December 13, 1883. Article on Wilmington schools.

Dictionary of National Biography. Edited by Leslie Stephens. Article on William Cobbett.

Appleton's Cyclopædia of American Biography. Articles on Hugh Williamson, John Ewing, Daniel Kirkwood, Richard S. Mason, and others.

Beeton's Dictionary of Universal Biography. Articles on Lewis Cass and others.

APPENDIX.

OF DELAWARE: ITS ORIGIN AND GROWTH.

By Henry C. Conrad.[1]

WILMINGTON.

er in the State of Delaware is The Delaware Gazette. appeared in 1784, under the ownership of Jacob Craig. d by Moses Bradford, who some years after was con- Delaware State Journal, and he in turn gave way to who sold it to Mr. Upham, who afterwards became kee and governor of Wisconsin. Mr. Upham sold it Harker, and Harker sold half interest to Henry Bosee, was published by the firm of Harker & Bosee. In . Johnson bought the half interest of Mr. Harker, and published by Bosee & Johnson. Mr. Bosee then re- rker resumed his interest, and the firm then became n. For the next three years two or three more changes nson continuing all the time as a partner, and Mr. r being partners at different times. For six years the ohnson & Chandler, composed of C. P. Johnson and andler, and in 1853 Mr. C. P. Johnson became sole the first day of April, 1872, the first issue of the Ga- ppeared. Mr. Johnson continued the sole proprietor and weekly editions until May 1, 1882, at which time papers, including the job department, to J. B. Bell or, two young men, who for several years past have nected with Delaware journalism.

State Journal was established in 1831 by the firm of er, composed of Peter Brynberg and Robert Porter, Bradford, the father of Hon. E. G. Bradford, at pres- s judge for the district of Delaware, as editor. After

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read at the meeting of the Peninsula Press Association at Oxford, , and published by Mr. Conrad in pamphlet form. He has kindly lication in this connection. The writer takes issue with Mr. he first newspaper published in the State, holding it to have been rant, published at Wilmington in 1762 by James Adams (see was himself in doubt, but now inclines to agree with the writer.

a year or so Mr. Brynberg retired and John B. Porter, a son of the remaining partner, came into the firm, which then became Porter & Son. About 1833 or 1834, William P. Brobson, a talented lawyer of Wilmington, and a clear and forcible writer, became editor, and continued as such until the death of Robert Porter, about 1836, when Henry H. J. Naff became partner with John B. Porter in the proprietorship and editor of the paper. The paper continued under the management of Porter & Naff for the succeeding 12 or 13 years, when Mr. Naff was appointed postmaster of Wilmington, and at the solicitation of John M. Clayton, who was at that time the Secretary of State of President Zachary Taylor, he retired from the Journal, being succeeded by Henry Eckel. The firm then became Porter & Eckel, with Joseph M. Barr as editor. Mr. Barr continued but a few months as editor, and Mr. Porter sold his interest to John A. Allderdice, who became a partner with Mr. Eckel, the firm name being Eckel & Co. Mr. Allderdice assumed the editorial chair and continued in it for about 18 months, during part of which time he was assisted by Leonard E. Wales, at present associate judge of the superior court of the State of Delaware. Dr. James F. Wilson purchased Allderdice's interest, and Mr. Eckel became editor, the firm name remaining as before. In 1855 the Statesman, which had been published by Dr. Heywood, became united with the Journal, and J. T. Heald became a partner with Mr. Wilson and Mr. Eckel in its publication. Mr. Heald retired in a very short time and Dr. Wilson disposed of his interest to Mr. Eckel in 1862, and for the succeeding ten years Mr. Eckel continued to be editor and sole proprietor. In May, 1872, the Journal passed into the hands of Croasdale & Cameron and was merged with the Every Evening then published by them.

In 1840 the Delaware Sentinel was started in Wilmington by the anti-Clayton wing of the Whig party, with William Naudain as editor. It did not prove a success, and at the end of nine months a committee of gentlemen who were financially interested in it, headed by Dr. James W. Thompson, took charge of it and changed its name to the Delaware Democrat. After running it a short time it was sold to Henry H. Cannon, a gentleman who had a year or so previous started a paper at Georgetown, Del., called the Republican. He came to Wilmington and merged the two papers under the name of the Delaware Republican about the year 1841, taking in John H. Barr as a partner, but Mr. Barr retiring shortly, his interest was purchased by William T. Jeandell and William S. Miles, both printers. It was published in the name of Cannon & Co. A few months afterwards Mr. Cannon sold his interest to John A. Allderdice, and the firm then became Allderdice, Jeandell & Miles. There were disputes between the partners and the paper got under the control of a party appointed by the court of chancery. Henry S. Evans, of West Chester, finally purchased the entire paper and sent his brother, Columbus P. Evans, to manage his interest,

wards in February, 1845, took into partnership George
Republican was published for nine years by the firm
n, when Mr. Evans died and it finally came into the
Mr. Vernon, who continued alone to publish it until
when three of his sons, W. Scott Vernon, George F.
ard B. Vernon, were admitted into partnership and
George W. Vernon & Sons adopted, under whose
Daily and Weekly Republican now appear, the daily
874.

1840 several small papers made their appearance in
they were short lived and failed to become established.
s published for a few years a temperance paper called
d among those devoted particularly to the political
were the Democrat, Delaware Blue, the Loco Foco,
e.

e Hen's Chicken was started under the direction of
ell and Francis Vincent. Mr. Jeandell disposed of his
tine Maille, who about three months after sold out to
then became sole proprietor. Mr. Vincent continued
several years, and in 1854 sold it to Dr. J. F. Hey-
hen mayor of Wilmington. Dr. Heywood united it
an, previously published by him, but he was not suc-
d after holding it for eleven months sold out to Henry
reviously stated, united it with the Delaware State

1848 George Washington Lowe started a temperance
ton called the Temperance Herald. He gave it up
Harker, who had previously been interested in the
he Delawarean with the office fixtures. He sold out
lle in 1850, but bad luck overtook Maille and the
e entire establishment. H. H. J. Naff being the pur-
fterwards fell into the hands of Daniel Hulley, who
fixtures in the publication of the Patriotic Politician,
corner of Sixth and Shipley streets. Dr. White and
ted a paper some years after called the Democrat. It
an independent paper and Mr. Wharton, of Dover,
tradley in the management. Afterwards Mr. Whar-
William T. Jeandell joined with Dr. Stradley and the
d to the Commonwealth. Joseph M. Barr afterwards
and in 1861 sold it to Francis Vincent, who changed
Blue Hen's Chicken. It next fell into the hands of
and while owned by them got into financial difficulties
n was discontinued.

paign of 1860 the Delaware Inquirer was started by
ry as a champion of Stephen A. Douglas for the
continued for about five years, or until the close

of the Civil War, when it passed into the hands of James B. Riggs, who failed in sustaining it, and a few months afterwards the materials and office fixtures came into the possession of Caleb P. Johnson, editor of the Delaware Gazette.

About 1857 the first effort was made to start a daily newspaper in Wilmington by Henry L. Bonsall, at present principal of the public schools of Camden, N. J. He published a small paper called the Daily Enterprise, but it failed to receive the support of the public and soon suspended publication. In 1866 a Mr. Tyler started a subscription list and laid the groundwork for the establishment of a daily paper in Wilmington. Before he had perfected his arrangements Howard M. Jenkins and Wilmer Atkinson, two young men from Pennsylvania, came upon the ground, reimbursed Mr. Tyler for the work done, and started the Daily Commercial. For five years the Commercial had the monopoly of the daily field in Wilmington. It was a bright, vigorous paper, and a credit to its publishers. In 1871 the Every Evening, "a 1-cent afternoon paper," made its appearance, edited by William T. Croasdale and published by the firm of Croasdale & Cameron, composed of William T. Croasdale and Gilbert C. Cameron. It proved a success, and rapidly forged to the front. In the course of a few years it came under the control of the Every Evening Publishing Company, by whom it is still published, and some four or five years ago the Daily Commercial was bought by the Every Evening Publishing Company, and the two papers united under the name of the Every Evening and Daily Commercial in April, 1877. Mr. Croasdale continued as editor until March, 1882, when he removed to Baltimore to take charge of the Baltimore Day, being succeeded as editor by Mr. Edward N. Vallandigham.

The Morning Herald, the first daily morning paper published in the State, was an outgrowth of the Wilmington Advertiser, a small advertising sheet, started by George Chance in connection with his job printing establishment. The leading spirit in the establishment of the Morning Herald was John O'Byrne, esq., a leading member of the Philadelphia bar, who came to Wilmington and took up his residence. It was controlled by three of his sons and a sister, Miss Catherine O'Byrne, under the firm name of George O'Byrne & Co. The first number was issued in August, 1876, and for some months it gave promise of vigor and long life, but it soon showed lack of management, and got tangled up financially, but continued to appear until March, 1880, when it passed into the hands of John H. Emerson, one of the pioneer newspaper men of the peninsula, who, with Henry C. Conrad, a member of the New Castle County bar, and the writer of this sketch, formed a partnership under the firm name of Emerson & Conrad, and in place of the Herald issued a morning paper called the Morning News. Mr. Emerson only continued in the management about four months, when his interest was purchased by Isaac R. Pennypacker, and the firm of Conrad & Pennypacker was formed, under whose direction the News continued until

hen it passed under the control of the News Publish-
ith Watson R. Sperry, formerly of the New York
s editor-in-chief, by whom it is published at the pres-

SUNDAY PAPERS.

ay paper published in Wilmington was called the Sun-
d was started by Francis Scheu in 1878. It continued
and a half.

D. Taylor Bradford started the Sunday Mirror, but
e of about five months its publication was suspended.
881, the Sunday Star was established, with J. B. Bell
prietor. It proved a success and is still in existence,
ect of a long life.

GERMAN PAPERS.

printed in the German language published in Del-
ed in Wilmington in 1859 by Frederick Hæhnle. It
blication and was called the Delaware Pioneer. In
to the hands of Herman Lau, who continued to pub-
eath, which occurred in 1876, when it was bought by
ho still publishes it. In connection with the Pioneer
ed, in January, 1881, a daily paper printed in Ger-
Freie Presse, which is still in existence.

RELIGIOUS NEWSPAPERS.

e Worker, a religious paper, devoted to the interests
on Conference M. E. Church, was started in 1875 by W.
Charles H. Sentman. Mr. Armour retired in about six
J. Lindsay and R. F. Corchran came in with Mr. Sent-
but at the end of about a year Mr. Sentman bought
and became sole proprietor, and has so continued since.

NEW CASTLE.

le Star has been until recently under the control of J.
k. It is the only paper published in the city of New
riginally published by a young man named George J.
existence has been marked by many changes and
gements. The present proprietor is Joseph C. White.
f the past would indicate that New Castle has not been
for journalists. The Gazette, published in 1836 by
and the Diamond State and Record, established a few
eorge W. Mahan, both failed to go, and after a trial of
e discontinued.

MIDDLETOWN.

Middletown seems to have been "left," as far as newspapers were concerned, as I can find no record of any paper being started there until 1867, when the Transcript was established by Mr. Henry Vanderford, formerly of the Cecil Democrat. He relinquished in favor of his son, Charles H. Vanderford, and he sold out to Edward Reynolds, who in turn disposed of it to Mr. W. Scott Way in 1877, the present affable and efficient secretary of our association, who for the last five years has made the Transcript "bright shining as the sun."

NEWARK.

During the year 1875 Charles H. Sentman, the present editor of the the Conference Worker, made some exertions towards starting a paper at Newark, but abandoned it. The Saturday Visitor, the first paper ever published in Newark, made its first appearance on February 11, 1876, under the control of J. H. Rowlenson, a young man who came from Centerville, Md. It is related of him that he had but 35 cents in his pocket when he brought up at Newark. He was a practical printer and had considerable journalistic ability, but his dissipated habits interfered with his success. Only a few numbers of the Visitor appeared when the name was changed to the Record, and in less than a year's time Rowlenson became discouraged and sold out to J. M. Armstrong, of New York City, who also failed to make it go, and in about a year afterwards the paper passed into the hands of Samuel D. McCartney, of Philadelphia, who changed the name to the Journal. A short experience convinced Mr. McCartney that he could not succeed, and in a brief time he sold out to L. Theodore Esling, a young man who had assisted Mr. McCartney in the office. Mr. Esling changed the name to the Newark Ledger, and by close application to business he built up the paper and it soon began to show growth and thrift. In January, 1881, Mr. Esling was cut off by death, and the paper for nearly three months afterwards did not appear. It was then purchased by Maj. F. A. G. Handy, of Washington, D. C., one of the ablest and most popular Washington correspondents. His brother, Egbert G. Handy, who was at that time connected with the Philadelphia Press, was put in charge of the paper, and about four months later purchased the property, the name being changed to the Delaware Ledger. Under Mr. Handy's management Newark has a paper which in all regards is a credit to her, the editorial utterances of the Ledger being very largely quoted by other journals.

SMYRNA.

The first paper published in Smyrna was the Smyrna Telegraph, started in 1839 by Samuel L. Jones. He got into debt and into jail as the result of the debt, and in 1847 or 1848 the paper fell into the hands of some

, who ran it in behalf of the prohibition cause. Abra-
blished it for a while for the temperance people and then
er himself with the name of the Delaware Herald and
cate. At one time he had a partner, I. W. Cooper,
d not prove successful and subsequently, about 1854,
ds of T. L. Poulson and R. D. Hoffecker. It continued
s as the Herald and Advocate until the retirement of
ho entered the ministry. The junior partner changed
myrna Times. In 1865 Mr. Joseph H. Hoffecker assumed
and it continued under him until January, 1878, when
cker again assumed control and he still continues to be
rietor.

CLAYTON.

Herald was started at Clayton in 1867 by Mrs. R.
ut it collapsed in a couple of years. The materials were
in the publication of the Herald and the Intelligencer
both proved short-lived and soon went out of exist-

DOVER.

racted a good many newspaper efforts, but only two
lawarean, under the management of Mr. Charles E.
tate Septinel with Henry W. Cannon as editor and pro-
5 the Delaware Record and Federal Advertiser was pub-
. Robinson, as a J. Q. Adams campaign paper; and
gton, who afterward became mayor of Wilmington,
ly publication in Dover in 1838, called the Delaware
sted only a few months. Samuel F. Shinn published
telligencer in 1822. In 1853 Mr. George W. S. Nichol-
Delaware State Reporter. It continued for several
ocratic paper under Mr. Nicholson's management, and
the hands of William Sharp, who published it a few
paper was discontinued. The Delawarean, with James
nd proprietor, first appeared in 1859. The State Sen-
d in 1874 by Henry W. Cannon, its present owner and
laware Sentinel was started in 1856 by Wharton &
did not continue but a short time. A paper called the
so had a short existence in Dover.

MILFORD.

r published in Milford was the Beacon, founded in 1848
rson, at present editor of the Denton (Md.) Union. He
the Beacon for three years when he sold it to Col. J.

e is now also the Index, a vigorous journal. L. P. P.

Hart Conrad, of Philadelphia. Col. Conrad edited it for about a year, when he died, and the establishment passed into the hands of James B. Mahan, who had been foreman and assistant editor for Col. Conrad. George W. Mahan was admitted to a part interest, and the paper under the name of the Beacon, continued under the management of the Mahan Bros. until 1859, when the name was changed to the Diamond State, and the paper removed to New Castle, where its publication was continued under the same management. The Sussex Gleaner was started in South Milford in 1856, but could not be made to go. In 1857 the name of the Beacon was revived in a newspaper started by a Mr. Chambers, from Maryland, and he, soon after its inception, sold to W. W. Austin, who discontinued it in a few months. In the same year (1857) two other papers were started in Milford. The Peninsular News and Advertiser, by James D. Prettyman, and the Observer, by Truitt & Ennis. Three newspapers seemed to be more than were needed, and the result was the discontinuance of the Beacon and the Observer and the survival of the News and Advertiser. The latter had a stormy and varied existence. It continued for six years but was continually changing in ownership. In that time it was under the control of Prettyman & Hudson, Dr. John S. Prettyman, E. P. Aldred, James B. Mahan, and W. H. Hutchin. From 1863 to 1867 but one effort was made to establish a paper at Milford. A gentleman named Briggs, from Wilmington, started the Milford Statesman, but it proved a failure after a few numbers had been issued. In 1867 James B. Mahan again came to the front and started the Milford Argus. In a few months it was disposed of to the Revell Brothers, who published it about a year when J. Lowery & Co. purchased it and changed the name to Our Mutual Friend. In 1870 it passed into the hands of Gen. Levi Harris & Co., who ran it a year when Dr. John S. Prettyman purchased the whole establishment, and in 1872 started the Peninsula News and Advertiser, associating with himself Dr. W. C. Davidson as editor, and William P. Corsa as publisher. Dr. Prettyman continued to control it for several years, and in January, 1880, sold it to his son Harry H. Prettyman, who took in Henry Harris, of Wisconsin, as a partner, in March, 1880. In August, 1880, Henry L. Hynson bought Prettyman's interest and it was published by Harris and Hynson until November, 1881, when H. L. Hynson became sole proprietor, by whom it is at present conducted. The Milford Chronicle was started October 1, 1878, by Julius E. Scott and Theodore Townsend. On January 1, 1881, Mr. Scott sold his interest to William P. Corsa, and it has since been published by Corsa & Townsend.

GEORGETOWN.

About 1840 Henry H. Cannon started a paper at Georgetown called the Delaware Sentinel. He published it a year or so and then moved it to Wilmington and united it with the Republican. In 1864 a paper

was started by William T. Croasdale, and continued a year. The Sussex Journal was founded in 1869 by nd, and continued under his control until 1880, when d T. Marvel and McKendree Downham bought it and since under the firm name of Marvel & Downham. llard S. Pride started at Georgetown the Delaware inued until 1881, when it was sold to a party of gentlewn, who have since published it under the name of the at.

LEWES.

r Light was started at Lewes in August, 1871, by Dr. and it has continued to shed forth its rays since under ment.

SEAFORD.

& Stevens started the Seaford Record, at Seaford. politics. Mr. Stevens sold his interest to his son, who, , continued to publish it, changing the name to the In 1872 it was sold to a Mr. Kavano, of Maryland, who e to the Sussex Democrat and afterwards to the Sea- The paper was not successful under Mr. Kavano's man- n suspended. A new paper was afterwards started by gton called the Seaford Enterprise. In 1878 it passed Thomas N. Williams and J. B. Clark who published e Sussex County Index. Rev. John Teasdale started 1881 the Seaford Enterprise and in September, 1882, r to Charles D. Judson, by whom it is now conducted.

[Whole Number 237.]

BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

CIRCULAR OF INFORMATION NO. 4, 1893.

ABNORMAL MAN,

BEING ESSAYS ON

EDUCATION AND CRIME AND RELATED SUBJECTS,

WITH

DIGESTS OF LITERATURE AND A BIBLIOGRAPHY,

BY

ARTHUR MACDONALD,

SPECIALIST IN THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

WASHINGTON:

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

1893.

[Whole Number 195

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CONTENTS.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., January 19, 1893.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith for printing a circular of information on the subject of "Abnormal Man," the same being a discussion of education and crime, together with some account of the literature of the subject, prepared by Dr. Arthur MacDonald, the specialist in this Bureau engaged in investigating the subject of education as a means of preventing crime and pauperism. To throw light upon any given subject it is necessary first to take account of its facts and in the next place to consider these in their relations to the facts of all other provinces. Crime and pauperism have to be studied with reference to drunkenness, the use of opium, insanity and other nervous diseases, idiocy, genius, suicide, the collection of people in the slums of cities, etc. No one can tell in advance the quarter from which the most important discoveries will come.

This epoch is characterized by the growth of cities. Peculiar problems arise, and no one of these problems is more important than that of dealing with the population consisting of the three weakling classes—the criminals, the paupers, and the insane. For the weaklings tend to collect by themselves and form slums wherein the educative influence of the family and social life is all-powerful to continue the youth in the same lines of unthrift and crime which his parents have followed. Hence the importance in our time of educational treatises which, like the one herewith transmitted, deal with the management of the abnormal classes of society.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. T. HARRIS,
Commissioner.

HON. JOHN W. NOBLE,
Secretary of the Interior.

PREFACE.

For the convenience of those who are interested in questions concerning the abnormal classes, and their moral, intellectual, and physical education, the author presents in book form a number of his writings, consisting of essays, and of digests of foreign literature, which have appeared in different periodicals.[1] Most of the matter, however, has been changed and added to, and much of it is published for the first time. In the digests of literature the endeavor has been to select some of the leading European specialists of the different schools of thought and give the substance of their ideas. In doing this the writer has *temporarily* taken the point of view of the author of each work, avoiding criticism, so that the reader may gain a clear insight into the spirit and scope of the book reviewed.

The bibliography has been made from a selection of a large number of titles. As far as the author is aware, no such bibliography exists in any language, and it is hoped, therefore, that it may serve those who especially desire to make independent study of any phase of the subject. As is frequently referred to or suggested in the essays, education[2] in its relation to the different forms of abnormality is regarded by the author as a remedy. While certain forms of abnormality as genius and talent are desirable, the larger number, such as criminality, pauperism, insanity, etc., are not. One of the main objects of education is to eradicate, or at least modify or correct, unfavorable tendencies in mind, will, and body. The vital relation of education, therefore, to these social evils is evident.[3] But the reader may inquire, Why not treat more of education, the remedy, than of these evils, which constitute a social disease? This indicates a mistake that is too often made; it is to experiment with a remedy before the cause of a trouble has

[1] La Scuola Positiva, Rome, Italy; Revista General de Legislación y Jurisprudencia, Madrid, Spain; Journal of Mental Science, England; American Journal of Psychology; The Arena; Andover Review; Yale Review; Medico-Legal Journal, New York; The Independent; The Summary, Elmira; Columbia Law Times, New York, Open Court, Chicago, and the National Review, London.

[2] See under "Education" in index.

[3] See "Social Pathology and Education" in Report of the Bureau, 1889-90, Vol. 1.

considered. It is true that it may be impossible to
l cause, but this is no excuse for omitting the search
negative results will avoid false applications of the
great service in subsequent inquiry.

ms of abnormality come under the general head of
y,"[1] which refers to all classes of individuals who,
l, or physical defects, are dependent upon or injurious
urpose of investigations in social pathology is not to
et whether or in what degree the individual or society
analyze the antecedents or causes of social disease
eliminary to its prevention or amelioration. Since
s the moral, mental, and physical development of indi-
ty, it bears directly on those pathological elements
l degeneration. As there is no specific for any of
the general remedy is to implant and develop in indi-
r the better) such mental, moral, and physical habits
event or lessen delinquency, dependency, or defect-
therapeutical method is distinctively educational.

rk may perhaps be considered as an introduction to
neral, giving a description, diagnosis, and synthesis
alities, which seem to be constant factors in society.

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here used instead of the usual term "Social Science," which is broader,
l abnormal.

CHAPTER I.

EDUCATION AND CRIME.

It is an undisputed fact that the moral side of education is as difficult as it is important. This becomes most apparent in the education of the dependent, weak, and criminal classes. Any educational system that can succeed here, can with slight modifications succeed in the community at large, for all men have tendencies, however slight, towards these defects; but, by force of character or surroundings, the great majority have been able to resist to such a degree as not to fall.

But it may be asked to what extent methods of education for normal individuals may be adapted to those who are abnormal. An individual may be said to be abnormal when his mental or emotional characteristics are so divergent from those of the ordinary person as to produce a pronounced moral or intellectual deviation or defect. To distinguish such abnormality from disease is difficult, if not impossible; but in general an abnormality is called disease as soon as it reaches a certain degree; but it may also be an excessive degree of the normal, just as in the physical man in a single diseased cell the normal or physiological processes are not changed in kind, but only in degree, or simply act at an inappropriate time. In general it may be said that, while all diseases are abnormal, not all abnormalities are diseases. The fact that the same functions are involved in both normal and abnormal processes (psychical and physical) is one explanation why the same methods of education are found applicable to both.

CLASSES OF SOCIETY.

If, then, the average man in the community is taken as a normal type and individuals are classified according to their degree of likeness or unlikeness to him, there will result in general the following divisions:

(1) The normal class of individuals, who greatly exceed all other classes in number; these in every community constitute the conservative and trustworthy element and may be said to be the backbone of the race.

tutions for the weakling classes, where the good effects
that it is as true as it is paradoxical that some of the
State are receiving a most practical education from the
however, has its justification, since the weak need more
stronger, but this weakness may have been due to the
h education at the outset.

s of institutions for the delinquent and dependent differ
at all from individuals outside. The excellencies and
educational system can be carefully studied in these in-
all are under the same conditions and can be controlled
of their life. In addition to the practical value of the ex-
ese institutions there is a deeper one. One of the main
cation is to eradicate or modify undesirable tendencies
op the favorable ones. Here is an opportunity for the
od of treatment, which is, first, to study the unfavorable
s, and, second, to investigate their causes as far as possi
dge thus gained will be the most reliable in correcting
s or preventing their development. By such a method
ults should be expected; gradual progress is all that can
A thorough study of this nature in penal and reforma-
ons is possible; the effects of the method of education can
erved physically, intellectually, and morally. Thus, when,
an inmate ceases to reverse his drinking cup after using
quired for purposes of cleanliness and order, this, though
thing in itself, indicates that he is becoming careless and
l power to reform. By a sort of radiation other negli
able to follow, confirming the direction in which he is
good report from his keeper, on the other hand, can sig
solution of the will. Thus a series of records indicate,
the moral and intellectual pulse of the inmate. What
very slight offense outside of a reformatory institution
in, where there is a minimum of temptation to do wrong
um of contrary restraint to do right, so that there may
education in the formation of good habits which are the
ard to the man after his release.

ant that institutions for the criminal and weakling classes
as much knowledge as possible of the life of the inmate
entering the institution, to keep a minute record of his
under their care, and especially to follow his career
us in putting useful knowledge to society at large. For,
be any advancement in the treatment of the weakling
medical methods, it will be in the direction of the study
es themselves. The institutions should afford facilities
ly, the very object of which is to furnish a trustworthy
r the prevention and repression of delinquency and de
f the cure is possible only to a certain degree, the approx-

inate determination of this degree would be of great practical importance.

But if it be objected that, after all, much that is definite and trustworthy may not be gained, the cause will be due mainly to the need of more exact methods of investigation. By keeping an exact record of conduct in school, workshop, military service, and cell in connection with intellectual standing, and giving special attention to those individuals whose hereditary tendencies and early surroundings are best known, a thorough investigation of physical, mental, moral, and industrial education can be made. A minute study of one single individual in the social organism, be he delinquent, dependent, or not, may suggest a method for the beginning, at least, of a scientific sociological education. Such experience might be especially helpful in pointing out the best methods for the education of the young. In general, the main object of education is to train the young to become intelligent, moral, and self-supporting citizens. A system of education that can accomplish this is a practical need in society as a whole.

But education in the sense of the intellectual only is not sufficient; for, though the children of the weakling classes remain six hours in school, the rest of their time is spent in abodes of crime, squalid homes, or vicious idleness. While the reform schools are doing much, they do not reach, however, the very young at a time when influences for evil can leave indelible impressions. If these unfortunate children are to be educated morally and intellectually, it is evident that this can not be done unless they are removed from their pernicious surroundings. Early prevention is the most effective of all reforms. Philanthropic efforts are being directed to this end, but they have not proved sufficient for their support is not always assured, and not infrequently they are of a sporadic nature. It would seem, if anything permanent and effective is to be accomplished, the State must assist. While the American Government is not a paternal one, yet there is a limit to all forms of rules here; extremes can produce evil. Maj. McClaughry, chief of the Chicago police, and an expert of long experience, considers first among the causes of crime in this country "criminal parentage, association, and neglect of children by their parents." It is to be presumed that parents will properly care for their children, treating them kindly, and allowing them an opportunity for at least an elementary education. When this presumption is found to be untrue, the State provides for the appointment of a suitable person to act as guardian. But, as Mr. Martindale[1] says, there are two defects in this method: "First, there is no officer or person or body charged specially with the duty of investigating and prosecuting the cases. Secondly, as such children have no estates out of which they may be maintained and educated, the court can find no guardian who will undertake the

[1] "Child Saving Legislation," North American Review, September, 1891.

harge. Experience in such cases shows that it is dif-
ighbors to prosecute. The fear of revenge, reluctance
common belief that a child belongs to a parent, who
as he pleases with it, and sympathy for a mother de-
ld, however depraved she may be, are all prevailing
nder the prosecution of such cases."

Vayland,[1] of the Yale law school, says that "it may
ne to convince the community that a father has no
to brutalize his children, and to conduct under his
ol for crime; that a mother has no inalienable right to
nts into a brothel. A haunt of vice and crime is not
o not advocate institutional life save as, and always
sting place under humane conditions, as to care and
ermanent home can be provided."

e most thorough study yet made[2] of the conditions
classes, 20 per cent of the school fees can not be col-
nt of the children attending are in want of food;
ut breakfast because the parents do not get it for
boy said, "his mother got drunk and could not get
ch children are very irregular in attendance, which
nce to a teacher, not to say a waste of public money.
in the poorest neighborhood; they have no regular
rd live in one room with their parents; their waking
between school and the street; saloons are some-
s as one to every hundred adults; those on the verge
ronize them. Yet there is good order in these schools;
ns are trained to respond to right rule, affording
as to their future. At home they have no training;
gement; they should be lifted up from their sur-
in a taste for better things. The difficulty is caused
y poverty and shiftlessness at home than by neglect
tter have great influence. Compulsion in its ordinary
useless in making such children regular in attend-
The parents are characterized by improvidence, want
no regard for the future of their children; as soon as
gh with school he is put on work which prepares
and thus he drifts into casual employment, trusts to
g, and gradually sinks. The poverty, misery, and
eneration will to a large extent come from the slum
need is education in habits of decency, cleanliness,
rudiments of civilization and domestic life; their in-
ot be too abstract, nor technical in the sense of fitting
tive examinations, clerkships, or college; but rather
, factory, trades, or the home.

gislation," reprint from National Baptist, December 3, 1891.
bor and Life of The People. London.

RELATION OF EDUCATION TO CRIME.

It is common suspicion of a number of writers that education has little influence in decreasing crime. That the meaning of this may be clearly understood it will be necessary to cite a few opinions.

Monsieur Tarde[1] speaks of the action of education upon insanity and suicide, which increase *pari passu*, but he refers only to primary education. He remarks that the restrictive action of education over crime is not seen, for where there is the most illiteracy there is not always the most crime; in Spain the proportion of illiteracy to the population of the whole country is two-thirds, but only half of the crime comes from this number. In 1883, 64 of condemned assassins knew how to read or write; 67 did not; there is one condemned for theft out of every 6,453 with common education and 8,283 with no education.[2] In the country, where there is less education than in the city, there are 8 prisoners a year for 100,000 inhabitants; but 16 prisoners for 100,000 inhabitants in the cities. Education modifies crime. Thus within forty or fifty years the stealing of grain has diminished while that of jewels has increased; also the proportion of crime against chastity has been very large, a probable effect of the emancipation and refinement of mind. Therefore, according to Monsieur Tarde, "the quantity of crime *en bloc* is not at all attacked by the diffusion of primary education. The remedy should be to proclaim the necessity of sacrifice, the insufficiency of the motive of personal interest, and the opportunity to elevate by æsthetical education of the highest sort and to spread professional education as far as possible." From Tarde's point of view, however, primary education is necessary, as it is a condition of the higher and professional, even if we should admit that *per se* it is without effect.

According to Proal,[3] instruction is not sufficient to repress crime; morality is not an attribute of thought but of will; spiritual beliefs and respect of God are necessary. Instruction does not do away with egotism. Literary and philosophical studies have much more moral influence than those that are scientific.

Victor Hugo liked to say that he who opens a school closes a prison. But Proal says many schools have been opened, but no prisons closed; criminality has not diminished while education has increased. Nicolay[4] insists that if defective instruction is the cause of every evil, then (1) there should be less morality in the country where instruction is less cared for than in the city; (2) the sense of duty should be more feeble in woman than in man; but the contrary is the truth; the city population, which is only three-tenths of the whole, furnishes almost half

[1] La Criminalité comparée, Paris, 1890.

[2] Jimeno Agius, la Criminalitad en España. Revista de España, 1885.

[3] Le Crime et la peine, Paris, 1892.

[4] Les enfants mal élevés, Paris, 1891.

ensed; and woman commits four times as few offenses
few crimes as man.

comparing 500 criminals with normal men, finds the

	Ex-inspects	Normals
	Per cent	*Per cent*
halets	12	6
ntary instruction	95	67
ior instruction	12	27

ts are inferior to the normal in the two extremes, but
ary instruction. But there is great variation, accord-
ry of criminals; 25 per cent of violators and assassins
but only 9 per cent of criminals against property,
er cent of swindlers. In Austria the class commit-
ime for fourteen years consisted of those engaged in
but such men are engaged in tedious and long inves-
e critical, and their emotional nature is little developed,
more clearly the folly of crime, and that its reaction
with great severity upon the offender. But with poets
is more common, since the emotional nature is more
artists are tempted by professional jealousy. While
chitects manifest little tendency to crime, painters pro-
owing perhaps to their abuse of alcohol. But crime
in the liberal professions. In Italy and France 6 per
l a super or culture; in Bavaria 4 per cent, and in Aus-
Lombroso adds that these numbers are relatively
he other classes of society. In Italy there is 1 criminal
fessional men "professionistes", 1 for every 278 propri-
419 farmers, and 1 for every 128 employes. For those
rofession science is not an end in itself, but a means,
ore to compel the passions. The physician can easily
lawyer commit perjury, and the teacher sin against

other authorities who take a somewhat different view.
t matter says that defect of intelligence, want of edu-
ty are the three great factors in crime. Beccaria asserts
t flow from knowledge are in inverse ratio to its diffu
nefits directly proportional; to prevent crime, enlight-
accompany liberty. A bold impostor, who is never a
an, is adored by the ignorant and despised by the en
sulist, and most difficult, means of preventing crime is
tion; and to guide the youth to virtue by the path of feeling,

me
ag
ger.

and deterring from evil by the force of necessity and disadvantage, and not by mere command, which is uncertain. D'Olivecrona[1] says that three-fourths of those who enter prison have been conducted to crime through neglected education; the method of treatment, therefore, should be the developement of the moral and intellectual faculties, and self-reformation should be taught as the first duty.

In America the opinion of those of large experience on the practical side of reformation decidedly favors the influence of education. Z. R. Brockway, superintendent of the Elmira reformatory (an institution generally acknowledged to be the most successful in the world), considers the factors for the reformation of criminals: (1) physical renovation; (2) mental development and education; (3) the creation of improved habitudes, including moral habitudes. Gardiner Tuffs, of the Massachusetts reformatory, says that criminals are more weak than wicked; deficient in goodness rather than excessive in wickedness; that a *reformatory is an educational institution;* inmates are trained physically, taught letters and trades, and equipped with manual skill and industrial knowledge. Rev. Fred. H. Wines makes labor, instruction, and religion all forms of educaton.

STATISTICS.

Since the opinions of experts seem to be at variance in regard to the influence of education upon crime, it will be necessary to make an impartial statistical investigation in those countries whose parallel figures (or nearly so) for the same years can be obtained. The difficulty here is evident, but the endeavor will be to present what statistics can be gathered from the best and latest sources in a number of countries, and also in places, as Saxony, where records are extended and accurate. The endeavor will be to give a sufficient number of statistics from different sources, so that the reader can make an independent judgment.

FRANCE.

The following table[2] gives statistics concerning France, which show a relative increase of crime to the population:

TABLE I.

Period	[illegible]	[illegible]	
	[illegible]	Offenses	Total
[illegible]	[illegible]	2,[illegible]	2,[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	2,[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
1871-[illegible]	[illegible]	4,[illegible]	4,[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	5,[illegible]	5,[illegible]

[1] Des causes de la recidive et des moyens d'en restreindre les effets. Stockholm.
[2] Dictionary of statistics, M. G. Mulhall, p. 235.

io of male and female adults able to sign the marriage conscripts able to write when enrolled for service, the

TABLE II.

Year.	Conscripts able to write.	Adults of both sexes.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*
1850	45	42
1855	66	60
1865	76	66
1876	84	75
1881	86	82

n, there has been a relative (to population) increase of and crime. The same is shown by the "Bulletin de ational de Statistique" for 1889:

TABLE III.

Year.	Literate conscripts	Year.	Literate adults (married).
	Per cent		*Per cent.*
	42	1854	53
	30	1865	60

ITALY.

official returns that the number of children at primary led since 1862.[1] The increase in education is shown in le:[1]

TABLE IV.

Year	Conscripts able to read.	Signing marriage register.		University Students and auditors.[a]
		Men.	Women.	
	Per cent	*Per cent*	*Per cent.*	
	30.0	40.0	21.0	.....
	43.0	42.3	23.3	.....
	52.1	51.8	30.1	.....
				13,234
				13,502
				14,837
				14,896
	[illegible]	57.2	31.2	15,911

[a] Statesman's Year Book.

Mulhall.

In 1875 the prisons of Italy admitted 206,700 criminals. In 1887 the convictions were as follows:[1]

TABLE V.

Convictions at -	
Assize court	5,546
Minor courts	309,813
Total	315,359

The judicial penal statistics of Italy for 1889[2] indicate the relative number (to population) of all the crimes condemned by the praetors in the years:

TABLE VI.

For every 100,000 inhabitants:	
1887	901.21
1888	928.87
1889	951.13

According to this official publication these figures (Table VI) indicate a relative increase in crime.

In the Statesman's Year Book for 1891 is given the percentage of illiterate conscripts and illiterates married:

TABLE VII.

Year	Illiterate conscripts	Illiterates married. Male	Illiterates married. Female.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1866	64.01	59.96	78.97
1871	56.71	57.73	76.7[illegible]
1881	45.74	48.21	69.90
1882	44.98	42.83	62.82
1888	42.96	42.27	61.30

For Italy, then, all statistics indicate an increase of both education and crime.

GERMANY.

From the table below it will be seen that there has been a relative increase in Germany of those condemned for crime:

TABLE VIII.

Number of persons condemned for every 100,000 inhabitants	
1882	1,028
1883	1,023
1884	1,062
1885	1,046
1886	1,066
1887	1,068

Habitual criminality has also increased.

[1] Melhall.

[2] Statistica Giudiziaria Penale, 1889. Roma, 1891.

[3] Zeitschrift des K. Sächsischen Statistischen Bureaus, XXXV. Jahrgang, 1889.

TABLE IX.

ear.	Crimes and offenses punished.			
	In general.	For the first time.	More than once.	Whole number.
				Per cent.
.....	329,968	247,512	82,456	24.9
.....	330,128	244,611	85,517	25.9
.....	345,977	254,703	91,274	26.4
.....	343,087	249,055	94,032	27.4
.....	353,000	253,885	99,115	28.9
.....	356,357	253,512	102,845	28.9

ty education of Germany there has been a relative ation:

TABLE X.

Number of students to every 100,000 inhabitants.[1]

..... 52.5
..... 32.0
..... 43.7
..... 51.0
..... 52.5
..... 58.1
..... 60.3

, therefore, a general increase of both university edu- but comparing the years 1882 and 1885 in the two be seen that the relative increase has been twice as as in the other; thus showing little correspondence. ant factor may be noted in this connection. From l XI it will be seen that in the years 1882, 1883, and 1884 education, and alcoholism manifest a somewhat large g increase. Of every 100,000 inhabitants in Germany hospitals the following numbers of chronic alcohol- ected with delirium tremens.[2]

TABLE XI.

10.0	1881	9.2
9.5	1882	11.1
10.6	1883	15.6
9.2	1884	19.8

and 1884 there is indicated a large increase in the drinks.

usal relation between drunkenness and crime is shown he Dictionaire des Sciences Medicales. "The propor- ed by habit of intemperance is as follows:" England, nmn, 80; Sweden, 31; Germany, 44; and Denmark, 74 be evident, therefore, that any statement as to educa- ime can have little weight until it can be shown that

1 Mayr, Allgemeines Statistisches Archiv., 1886.
2 Dr. A. Die Trunksucht, 1886.

the increase in crime is not accounted for to a large extent by the increase in the use of alcohol. But Baer affirms that also indirectly the abuse of alcohol increases crime very greatly.[1]

AUSTRIA.

TABLE XII.a

Convictions	1885	1886	1887.	1888
Crimes	30,867	29,706	28,745	28,112
Offenses less sections	5,745	5,400	4,989	4,850
Misdemeanors	538,947	538,453	536,298	536,740
Number combined at end of year	555,557	493,559	570,012	569,682
Males	10,108	9,785	9,602	9,364
Females	1,521	1,439	1,478	1,475
Total	11,689	11,224	11,080	10,839

a Statesman's Year Book, 1891.

The above table shows an absolute decrease in number of convictions in Austria.

The total number of pupils in school was, in 1886, 2,748,317; in 1889, 2,831,667. These latter figures[2] show, on the other hand, an absolute increase in education; but this is still greater since, in 1886, 10.9 per cent escaped enrollment, and in 1889, 11.3 per cent. As far as statistics are accessible, Austria shows an increase in education and a decrease in crime.

NORWAY AND SWEDEN.

In Norway and Sweden the convictions for crime were as follows:

Tried for	Sweden			Norway		
	1881	1882	1884	1885	1886	1890
Crimes	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Offenses	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	21,[illegible]	[illegible]
Total	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

The ratio of children in school was 98 per cent in 1888 and 71 per cent in 1859 in Sweden.

The population in Norway[3] in 1875 was 1,818,853; in 1887, 1,959,000; and in 1891, 1,999,176. The number of pupils in 1885 was 263,392; in 1887, 291,064; and in 1888, 295,239.

While there has been a decrease in the number of convictions for crime from 1881 to 1887 in Norway and Sweden, there has been an increase in education. But in Norway alone for the year 1888-'89 there

[1] See chapter [illegible] on alcohol etc.
[2] Oesterreichisch. Statist. [illegible] 21 and 25 Bände.
[3] Mulhall.
[4] The Statesman's Year Book, 1891.

he number of crimes. As to education in Norway we
le to obtain statistics.

ENGLAND.

Mulhall[1] "the increase of schools has been accompanied
crime. The returns for England, Wales, and Scotland

od.	Children attending school.	Annual convictions.	School children per 1,000 population.	Criminals per 100,000 population.
	220,000	24,300	11	122
	500,000	21,200	26	96
	1,170,000	17,010	47	68
	2,500,000	13,900	62	56
	4,019,000	12,150	125	38

'From 1869 to 1881 there was a decline of 53 per cent
thus showing the good effect of reformatories since
in 1869 into the United Kingdom:"

	1869.	1881.
offenders	10,514	5,579
00,000 inhabitants	458	215

so the increase of schools in Ireland has been con-
decrease of crime:[2]

ool.	Children attending school	Annual convictions	School children per 1,000 population	Criminals per 100,000 population
	220,000	2,760	5	124
	710,000	2,918	56	52
	805,000	2,492	77	47
	812,000	1,412	100	29

s Year Book for 1892 gives the following tables, com-
l returns, relating to primary schools (both board
ntary schools), showing the progress of education
1884 to 1890:

	Average number of children in attendance.	
Year ended August 31.	England and Wales.	Scotland.
4	3,271,124	448,242
5	3,374,325	455,655
6	3,438,425	476,806
7	3,527,561	491,725
8	3,614,867	496,259
9	3,662,625	503,100
0	3,717,817	519,758

[1] ictionary of Statistics, 1891. [2] Mulhall.

The increase of the number of children in attendance from 1884 to 1890 has been a continual and gradual one.

The following table will indicate the progress of elementary schools in Ireland.[1]

Year Ended December 31	Schools in operation.	Average attendance.
1884	7,832	492,928
1885	7,936	502,454
1886	8,024	490,484
1887	8,112	515,388
1888	8,196	493,893
1889	8,251	507,865
1890	8,298	489,144

The number of criminal offenders committed for trial and convicted in the three kingdoms was:[1]

Year.	England and Wales		Scotland		Ireland.	
	Committed for trial	Convicted	Committed for trial.	Convicted.	Committed for trial.	Convicted.
1885	14,786	10,580	2,545	1,956	2,850	1,573
1886	13,974	10,686	2,437	1,838	3,028	1,619
1887	13,292	10,118	2,377	1,843	2,604	1,411
1888	13,750	10,561	2,352	1,753	2,188	1,220
1889	12,689	9,348	2,244	1,723	2,181	1,225
1890	11,974	9,212	2,314	1,928	2,061	1,103

In England, Scotland, and Ireland all statistics are in accord in showing an increase in education and a decrease in crime, from 1885–1890. The fact that in certain years there is an increase in the number of convictions, although a decrease in the number committed for trial, would indicate more certainty in the execution of justice. This may be one element to account for the cause of the general decrease in crime.

AUSTRALIA.[2]

Year	Per 100,000 population.		
	Arrests	Committals	Convicts.
1861	1[illegible]	22	13
1871	[illegible]62	14	8
1881	1[illegible]2	12	7
1888	[illegible]	10	6

In this table arrests include all manner of crimes and offenses; committals refer only to crimes. There is indicated a relative decrease in crime. The increase of education on the other hand is quite marked.[3]

	Pupils.
1861	130,000
1871	312,000
1881	671,000
1888	783,000

[1] The Statesman's Year Book, 1892. [2] Mulhall, 1891.

JAPAN.

e 1885 there has been a decrease in crime:[1]

Crime.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.
ses	4,437	5,636	5,940	4,397	2,174
ses	94,055	96,474	96,474	79,723	75,279
	97,492	109,368	102,414	84,120	78,453

education is compulsory. The official educational sta-
are:

	Students or pupils.
ary schools	2,802,639
ools	11,885
ty schools	875
chools	5,000
l schools	11,424
ale schools	898
hools	68,061
tal	2,900,782

	Students and pupils.
ary schools	2,927,868
middle schools	11,200
middle schools	3,939
rls' schools	2,589
chools	5,287
l schools	15,453
chools	88,226
ty schools	808
arten schools	6,337
tal	3,061,717

the two last tables an increase in number of students
ident. A development of their system of education is
y the increase in the kinds of schools.

WÜRTEMBERG.

recent official returns in Würtemberg no one above
unable to read or write.[2] There has also been a de-
mber of those convicted over 12 years of age, as fol-
3,617; in 1887, 12,841, and in 1888, 12,757.

[1] s Year Book, 1889. [2] Statesman's Year Book, 1892.

SAXONY.

In Saxony from 1884 to 1889 the number of common schools and the total attendance has increased.

Year	Common schools		Other educational institutions except university.	
	Number.	Attendance.	Number.	Attendance.
1884	4 046	599 470	71	15 374
1887	4 186	641 050	70	17 739
1889	4 229	661 464	78	17 294
1890	4 250	670 354	77	17 096

University of Leipzig.[1]

Year	Students				
	Theology	Jurisprudence	Medicine	Philosophy.	Total
1885	699	610	662	1 104	3 075
1886	651	625	690	1 092	3 060
1887	681	685	714	940	3 054
1888	693	811	791	970	3 288
1889	660	879	874	969	3 391
1890	665	1 096	944	859	3 458

From the preceding table it will be seen that while the number of students in theology and philosophy have decreased, those in medicine and jurisprudence have increased sufficiently to more than counterbalance this decrease.

According to official statistics[2] of education in Saxony, from 1864 to 1890 the attendance on the university shows an increase of 251.63 per cent. There were graduated from the gymnasia[3] in 1877, 250; in 1878, 242; in 1880, 278; in 1884, 357, and in 1889, 446. Saxony thus shows an increase in all departments of education. The comparative table[4] following shows an increase in population (No. 14), and a decrease in the number of condemned in general (No. 1):

SAXONY.

No.		1884	1885	1886	1887
1	Number of condemned in general	[illegible]	16 [illegible]	16 [illegible]	16 161
2	Total attendance at all schools except university	614 [illegible]			658 [illegible]
3	Suicide	1 114	1 146	1 071	1 104
4	Total attendance on universities		[illegible]	3 060	3 054
5	Ratio of condemned for every [illegible] inhabitants responsible under the law	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
6	Total attendance at common schools	[illegible]		[illegible]	641 050
	For every [illegible] thefts there were [illegible] persons to the number of				
[illegible]	Male	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	19.5
[illegible]	Female	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	Burglaries and [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	14 [illegible]
10	Price of [illegible] per 1 000 kilograms	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	Price of [illegible] per 1 000 kilograms	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]		
14	Number of inhabitants	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

[illegible]

[1] Statesman's Year Books, 1887–1892.

[2] Zweiter Bericht über die gesammten Unterrichts- und Erziehungsanstalten im Königreiche Sachsen, Dresden, 1890.

[3] Zeitschrift des k. sächsischen statistischen Bureaus, 1889.

r other social factors are given in the table above, as
y have a close relation to crime.

riod from 1884 to 1887, there is a decrease under the
In total attendance on university (No. 4), in number
amps (No. 9), in the price of rye (No. 10), and in the
(No. 12).

rease in attendance of all schools except universities
ttendance at common schools (No. 6), in juvenile
8), and in alcoholism for 1884 and 1885 (No. 13). The
s and the price of wheat do not vary very much dur-

e of the most common foods in Saxony. If a decline
en as an indication of cheaper living for the poor, and
g less struggle for existence, it might be used as an
unt for the decrease in crime. But such methods of
guing in statistics may indicate possibilities, and in
bilities, but not certainties. One reason is that other
ch as psycho-social, must be included, although they
ted in their influence upon crime. As arguments of
popular and so frequently employed, it may not be
icate what unwarrantable conclusions may be reached.
e convictions per 10,000 inhabitants over 12 years of
1885 and 108.2 in 1886. Now, in 1885, woolen manu-
lue of £2,663,015 were imported into Germany, and in
ached was £2,783,728, showing an increase somewhat
of the convictions. Arguing from concomitancy to
t be said that increase in wool importation caused in-
It is true that there is probably some relation be-
n the social organism, but it is not necessarily a causal
hat one particular element causes another to increase
antity.

e Tenth Census in the United States the ratio of con-
aries to the population was 709 in each million; in the
the ratio is 722, showing an increase of 13 to the mil-
ty jails in 1880 the ratio of prisoners was 253, and 312
n increase of 59 to the million. In this period both
Catholics claim a large increase in clergy, churches,
. But religious and moral forces tend to decrease
se it. The absurdity, therefore, of reasoning in statis-
tants whose reciprocal influence is unknown is suffi-
Sociology has not reached that stage of completeness
s can be measured and the resultant action in this or
calculated. The social equation has too many un-
o admit of solution by any method yet known.

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istisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich, 1891.

Thus in the question as to the relation of education to crime, the fact of concomitance, as has been seen, is not necessarily a causal relation. While it is true that a majority of countries show an increase in both education and crime, yet not a few, and some of the most developed nations, show an increase of education and a decrease in crime. As far as statistics are concerned, the exact relation between education and crime is unknown.

It may be inquired, then, as to the probable influence of education on criminal tendencies. The best method of forming any opinion is, perhaps, by the study of average individual cases.

It would be difficult to find a criminal who in a single instance could attribute the cause of his crime to education. It is true, he might show that it was due to an evil acquaintance made in school; but to suppose that the teaching of the common or higher branches develops a tendency to crime seems almost absurd when considered practically. Perhaps as good a test as any is for one to ask himself if the teaching of ordinary branches in his school days gave rise to immoral or criminal desires. The question seems insignificant when we consider the positive influence, such as suggestive novels or similar reading or detailed accounts of crime, that few of the young escape. The learning of the multiplication table and the study of English grammar in the case of a person with criminal tendencies would give him less time to dwell upon his evil thoughts.[1] In the absence, therefore, of adequate knowledge of the exact and varied relations between education and crime, we can do no better than conclude with the words of Wines, when he says,[2] "seventy years' experience of men, seventy years' work among men, have impressed one idea upon my mind: it is that nothing can be done with men except through the will, and the will can be reached only through the intelligence and the heart."

SUMMARY OF STATISTICS ON EDUCATION AND CRIME IN THE UNITED STATES, GATHERED BY THE BUREAU.

The whole number of inmates received by the prisons and penitentiaries reporting to the Bureau for the year 1891 was 27,103. The average age was 26 years.

EDUCATION.—The education of the inmates was as follows: 13 per cent of those reporting could neither read nor write; 1 per cent claimed to have been in college; 4 per cent in high school or academy; 48 per cent in grammar grade of public school; 20 per cent in private elementary school. Of those discharged, 3 per cent were unable to read or write.

Those institutions reporting are probably among the best, and it is also probable that their per cent of education is higher than institu-

[1] See remarks by Dr. Harris, p. 105. Also see p. 203.
[2] The State of Prisons, etc., in the Civilized World, 1880, p. 222.

not sent in returns; so that were it possible to obtain the prisons the percentages of illiteracy and want of would be somewhat greater.

to the religion of inmates, 42 per cent were Catholics, 33 per cent Protestants, and 16 per cent of no religion.

rty-two per cent were natives of the State and 43 per of other States. This confirms the well-known migra- criminals; 11 per cent were natives of Ireland, 3 per , 3 per cent of Canada, 4 per cent of England and t of Scotland, 0.4 of France, 1 per cent of Italy, and r countries.

OFFENSE.—There were 11 per cent of the offenses per cent against property, 47 per cent against pub- per cent against government.

.—The number of those defective in intelligence was er cent showed fair intelligence; 38 per cent were ent excellent in intelligence.

GHT.—Twenty institutions reported 124 teachers (leav- hool) and 2,722 pupils. The average daily session of wo hours and twenty minutes. Reading was taught in riting in 16, spelling in 14, grammar in 11, geography , the Bible in 2, and literature, algebra, ethics, and 1. The results here given do not include Sunday teaching.

—The proportion of inmates regularly employed before iaries was 38 per cent; 22 per cent had learned some nufacturing trade before entering the prisons.

Sixty-two per cent were reported living with their ears of age; 69 per cent of parents were poor, 18 per and 6 per cent well-to-do. Sixty-three per cent re- and 36 per cent in the country.

RIMINAL.—Considered incorrigible, 10 per cent; insti- 26. Considered as returning to crime, 35 per cent; ing, 28. Considered as owing crime to circumstances, tutions reporting, 21. Considered as owing crime to ties, 35 per cent; institutions reporting, 22.

RIMINAL.—Eighty-two per cent were reported as hav- 1 per cent fair health, and 6 per cent bad health.

CRIMINAL.—Sixty-eight per cent showed good con- fair, and 7 per cent bad conduct.

NESS OF CRIMINAL.—Fifteen of the 34 penitentiaries r the most trustworthy criminals to be those commit- nst person. Sixteen of the 30 reporting consider the criminals to be those against property. The remain- so varied that further classification could not be car-

PRESSING PRACTICAL REFORMS RECOMMENDED.—Education specially recommended by 7 institutions; strict discipline recommended by 7 institutions; kind treatment recommended by 5 institutions; religious influences recommended by 5 institutions; teaching of trades recommended by 4 institutions; occupation recommended by 4 institutions; better classification recommended by 4 institutions; assistance to discharged prisoners recommended by 2 institutions. The other recommendations were not sufficiently similar to classify further.

CHAPTER II.

CRIMINOLOGY.

s a branch of sociology, and treats of those actions, feelings which are especially dangerous either to the ciety. Drill says that crime is a sensible measure of ealth, strength, and prosperity of a given society in a f its existence. The social organism suffers from dis- individual. Thus there is a pathological sociology, the morbid states of society and the anomalies opposed hows their coexistence and the derivation of one from

or criminal anthropology, is one of the most recent 885 the "First International Congress" was held at ond congress met at Paris. At first the scientific study was looked upon with suspicion. At present interest s greatly increasing. Like every new science, it is in age. The Italians are the innovators. The criminol- ed into two parties: one emphasizes the pathological ses; the other, the psychological and sociological. The vided into socialists, who would account for everything ity of economic conditions, and those who take into l social phenomena.

roper may be divided into general, special, and practi- iminology consists in a summary and synthesis of all . Special criminology concerns the investigation of s, physically, psychically, and historically considered. is the most promising field for the advancement of a science. The practical side, which includes all stitutions for the prevention or repression of crime, is r to the public.

ons of criminal anthropology or criminology and its re- sciences might be indicated as follows:

ryology considers the analogies of crime in the vege- al kingdoms. The *anatomy* of criminology includes the craniology, cerebrology, histology, anthropometry ny of the criminal. In criminal *psychology* one would

study the entire psychical life: Intelligence, sentiments, sensibility, ethics, æsthetics, and religion. Criminal *sociology* comprehends the association of criminals; their relation to the state; economically, and in connection with poverty and misery. Criminal *jurisprudence* takes into consideration all criminal laws and their underlying principles. *Penology* treats of the principles, degrees, and methods of punishment. *Statistical* criminology has for its object the arrangement, classification, and summary of all criminal data, and their interpretation. Criminal *hypnology* concerns those hypnotic and partially hypnotic conditions in which crime is committed, especially in the case of hysterical individuals. Criminal *epidemiology* considers those conditions where, through imitation or by a sort of contagion, crime suddenly develops. Criminal *teratology* treats of pathological sexuality, onanism, pederasty, sodomy, masochism and sadism, and saphism. Criminal *prophilaxy* considers the methods of prevention through alterations of social condition, physical, intellectual, moral, and religious education; by means of prisons, transportation, and deportation. The *philosophy* of criminology takes up the more disputed questions and theories, as atavism, infantilism (natural depravity of children), degeneracy, the interpretation of psychical and physical characteristics, and crimino-psychiatrical cases. We may add that the whole study of pathological humanity may do for humanity what pathology has done for medicine.

The study of criminology, like the study of medicine, should be carried on by scientific methods. That is to say, all the conditions, occasions, and causes of crime must be investigated first, if the treatment is to be a rational one. "Sound pathology, sound medicine," is as true as it is familiar.

A practical advantage in the study of criminals is, that they being in prison, questions can be asked and investigations permitted that would be very difficult outside of prison. The exact conditions, such as diet, regularity in manner of living, etc., being known make it more favorable for scientific inquiry. And since the criminal is living on the bounty of the State, there is no valid reason why he can not be utilized (provided always that it is in a humane way): for the very object of such an investigation is ultimately to benefit the State by lessening crime. The method is, by a thorough diagnosis, to trace out the underlying and constant causes of crime, and thus be enabled to apply direct means towards its prevention and repression. The study of the criminal can also be the study of a normal man; for most criminals are so by occasion or accident and differ in no essential respect from other men. Thus an individual, becoming excited in discussion, or under the influence of liquor, or on account of an insult, may, on the spur of the moment, strike the offender with the nearest object in his reach; if it is a hammer, he becomes a criminal; if it is a book, he is not a criminal.

re the individual is criminal by nature, it is generally
t his intellectual side that is abnormal; so that methods
essful in mental education will be applicable outside
ice versa, any experiment that fails in prison may save
from making a similar mistake. Thus the prison or
also serve as a laboratory for experiments on humanity
umanity itself. The pressing need of the present is a
tion that will prepare the average young person for
h a system will not be found by arguments or theories,
rom experiments. Any prison method that might be
for the moral, intellectual, and industrial training of
would *a fortiori* be applicable to society at large.

PRACTICAL CRIMINOLOGY.

tment of the criminal in prison as a means of reforma-
o better than give briefly the ideas of some of those
try who have had much experience with criminals.
rst and foremost Mr. Z. R. Brockway, superintendent
eformatory, who is justly recognized in Europe, as well
s the most successful in the actual reformation of the

nate sentence is the pivot of criminal reform. Its true
classes of prisoners in custody, without any maximum
m of sentence. Thus applied, it includes conditional
marking system, which are inseparable. The indeter-
e substitutes in the mind of the prisoner and in the
hich is more important—the idea of correction instead
This does not abolish penal treatment; prison disci-
tensified. It gives a great advantage in treating mis-
hus a man might be held for life for being a drunkard
ens the duty of determining the date of the prisoner's
upon the warden, who should know his prisoners in-
who is the best man to determine when it is safe to
r. On the old system there is an inevitable antago-
eper and convict, but with the indeterminate sentence
ires to convince the warden that he is fit to go out, and
rookedness; but he eventually realizes that he has
At this point reformation begins, and the next step
t effort to get out in the way the warden marks out for
tes the release of the prisoner at the best time, when
teadily for months, and honestly earned his promotion
and encouraged. After his release he is surrounded
h of legal liability. This is of great benefit to "ha-
des" and indispensible to accidental criminals. The
ntence is necessary to an effective reformatory system,
strongest and almost the only true motive that influ-

ences a man to behave properly, to cultivate and to prepare himself for free life.

On his leaving, a position is found for the prisoner. The employer knows all about him. The prisoner must correspond with the warden each month, certificates being sent by his employer. At the end of six months, if he is all right, he goes "scot free." If he breaks his parole he is brought in again. The released all obtain positions. Scientific reformation is based on physical culture and labor in a way that approaches as near as possible the natural relation of labor outside of prisons. The prisoner has what he earns and pays for what he gets, supplemented by a complete course of scholastic education. At least 60 per cent of men between 15 and 30 are reformed.

Rev. Frederick H. Wines says that this system of conditional liberation introduces new life into the prison; it causes officers to make individual study of prisoners; it enables the prisoner to support his family, it gives him every chance to do better; it is the most thorough test of prison discipline. A man is not sent into the world without any test. Industry, study, and good conduct are the sole conditions of release. The determinate sentence gives freedom to dangerous men, and often causes unjust penalties. The indeterminate sentence is the only rational one. The difficulty in its application is no greater than in the case of releasing the insane.

Another practical question in criminology is the financial one. According to F. H. Wines, censor for criminal statistics in 1880, there were nearly 60,000 prisoners in the United States, and 11,000 inmates of juvenile reformatories. It is estimated by the same authority that the cost of maintaining our prisoners is fifteen millions yearly, but that this is a small part of the cost of defending property and life; another fifteen million must be added for keeping up the police department. Then there is the ponderous and expensive system of courts, the cost of which, with officers, employés, detectives, etc., is enormous for criminal matters alone. Moreover, the cost of the property stolen can not be reckoned. The reports of the state prisons show one-third more convictions for high crime, in proportion to the population, than there were twenty years ago.

We may add to this the moral effect on the community, through the familiarizing and consequent hardening of the public conscience by the perusal of criminal details. But there is a nervous effect, which is not insignificant. The number of persons in every community that are, for instance, continually in fear of burglaries is not inconsiderable. General nervousness (especially in women), lack of sleep, easy awakening, seeing if all windows are fastened, placing chairs and the like against the doors, etc., are not uncommon phenomena. Why should the public, who pay for the treatment of criminals when confined, and still more when they are not confined, continue to graduate these ex-convicts almost daily into the ranks of citizens? Why permit all this,

e time every intelligent prison warden and any judge
ttention to criminal matters feels beforehand morally
ny prisoners, who are legally released, will go and
munity (possibly taking life) and be returned to com-
circle again, saying, in the words of Reinach, as they
ot "*à dieu*," but "*au revoir?*" The convict is a para-
convict is a roving parasite. The location of his crime
depends upon the quality of the food and general
neighboring prison. The state releases the convict, he
te, the state pays detectives to catch him, he hires his
state pays the costs, and if convicted the state pays
ses.

forts of the prisoner, we do not overlook the fact that
r (the latter being more difficult to obtain), with bath-
asonable comforts, are a great aid towards the refor-
riminal. Yet they should not be pushed so far as to
a desirable, or at least a very convenient, place to live
at an intelligent and experienced warden, with a well-
y, clean, and comfortable prison and a liberal diet, will
r to reform his prisoners than if those things were lack-
rue that with extras, if you please, luxuries and special
rden can, by their judicious employment as means of
conduct, justify their existence within prison walls.

PRISON DISCIPLINE.

truism of prison discipline that the conditions inside
those outside as near as possible, so that on the pris-
e change may not be so sudden as to precipitate his
obably became an evil-doer gradually, and if he becomes
he change must be as gradual. The importance of the
e individual method in prison discipline is evident here.
l that one in charge of a penal or reformatory institu-
v at least the important details as to the character and
ividual under his charge. The practical value (not to
ntific value) is obvious. This applies as well to all the
ho are much more in contact with the men. We say
l, if the men are to have intelligent and proper treat-
matter of fact, in almost all our institutions, if not all,
h details is the rule among those in charge, and this
to be the most intense among those who are in closest
e inmates, the very ones whom such knowledge might

ble, as in other institutions, is the want of thoroughly
t is as true of a prison as of a university that buildings
but men. The public, however, are unwilling to pay
Even the wardenship of a prison is not regarded as

a very high political office, nor are intellectual qualifications a conspicuous requisition. The regular duties of a warden (not to mention his political ones) leave him little time and less energy to make an individual study of his prisoners, and too many of the underofficers are incapable from lack of education or intelligence, or both. Many of the criminals are more intelligent than those over them. The psychological effect is apparent. Given ten of the most disorderly men in a prison, and one of the lowest paid officers (as is too often the case) to take charge of them, the result is likewise evident.

Having considered the point of view from within the prison, we may briefly take up the point of view of the citizen outside, who is of much more value than the criminal. The value of the criminal is very small in comparison, but it is infinitesimally so when the whole community are considered. In a sense the criminal is important, simply because the community make him so. Just as a flaw in one little part of a mechanism can throw the whole into disorder, so the criminal is important, since by his crime he can throw the whole community into excitement. Why, then, should he have so comfortable quarters and many privileges at the expense of the community? Simply because it is more economical for the community (not to mention higher moral and religious reasons) to treat him well than otherwise. History records the results of the vengeance theory, and shows at least its uselessness.

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF CRIMINOLOGY.

The relation of criminality to the other forms of pathological and abnormal humanity is one of degree. If we represent the highest degree, as crime, by A^6, A^5, say, would stand for insane criminality, and A^4 for alcoholism, perhaps, A^3 for pauperism, A^2 for those weak forms of humanity that charity treats more especially, and A for the idea of wrong in general, particularly in its lightest forms. Thus, crime is the most exaggerated form of wrong; but these forms are all one in essence. A drop of water is as much water as is an ocean.

It is difficult to draw a distinct line between these different forms of wrong. This will become evident from the fact that they are dovetailed one into the other. Thus, when cross questioning criminals, one often feels that not only are their minds weak and wavering, but that they border close on insanity. The same feeling arises after an examination of confirmed paupers. Here alcoholism is one of the main causes; the individual, on account of his intemperate habits, finds difficulty in obtaining employment, and this forced idleness gradually, from repetition, develops into a confirmed habit. Pauperism may be, in some cases, hereditary, but it is too often overlooked that the children of paupers can acquire all such habits from their parents, and so it can be carried from one generation to another, without resorting to heredity as a cause, which is too often a name to cover up our ignorance of all the early conditions. The extent to which alcoholism is involved in all forms of

hology is well known; it is often indirectly as well as
e of leading the young into crime; the intemperate
self a pest in his own home; the children remain out
fear; this habit leads to running away for a longer
not thieves, the children are compelled to steal, or to
live; and thus many become confirmed criminals or
The great evil about alcoholism is that it too often
ind, who are of much more value than the alcoholic
es itself felt indirectly and directly in our hospitals,
orphan asylums, and charitable institutions in general.
trade of the prostitute may be, alcohol is her greatest

ted, some of the lesser degrees of abnormal and
anity may be considered under the head of charito-
are represented by the different kinds of benevolent
as asylums for the insane and feeble-minded, for the
als, homes for the deaf, dumb, and blind, for the aged
; and institutions for defectives of whatever nature.
owever, that the term charitological may not only be
s pathological or abnormal, but also to that which is
normal. Thus it can refer to institutions of quite a
ut yet none the less charitable in nature. We refer,
cational institutions, the majority of which are a gift
l especially to those who attend them. It is obvious
y student is, in some measure, a charity student from
act that the tuition money in most cases pays a very
expenses.

t line can be drawn between penal and reformatory
between reformatory and educational institutions; it
tion of degree. But, in saying this, it is not meant
degree is of little consequence. On the contrary, it
t to distinguish between penal, reformatory, and edu-
tical reasons, as in the classification of prisoners, not
riminals. In a sense, all education should be reform-

asked, where can a subject end? It goes without
sions are more or less arbitrary, if we are seeking
s are together, and the more we look into the world
it to be an *organic mechanism of absolute relativity.*
ngs who are abnormal or defective in any way are
than unlike normal individuals; and hence, in the
f any single individual (microcosmic mechanism), dis-
nore for convenience. Thus the difficulties of distin-
n health and disease, sanity and insanity, vegetable
amiliar. Whatever may be said from the educational
out abnormal cases is generally true, with few modifi-

cations, of the normal. Education and pedagogy are thus to be included to some extent in a comprehensive charitological system.

But although the distinct separation of one wrong from another is not easy, yet the decision as to the highest form of wrong may not be so difficult. This form consists, without doubt, in the act of depriving another of his existence; no act could be more radical; the least that could be said of anyone is that he does not exist. The desire for existence is the deepest instinct in nature; not only in the lower forms of nature, but anthropologically considered, this feeling manifests itself in the highest aspirations of races. In mythology, religion, and theology the great fact is existence hereafter, and in philosophy it has gone so far as preëxistence of the soul. Perhaps the deepest experience we have of nonexistence is in the loss of an intimate friend, when we say so truly that part of our existence has gone from us. It is death which makes existence tragic.

Now, the degrees of wrong may be expressed in a general way in terms of existence; that is, in depriving another of any of his rights we are taking from him some of his existence, for existence is qualitative as well as temporal; that is, it includes everything that gives to life content.

Thus, in this sense, a man of forty may have had more existence than another at eighty where the former's life has been broader, richer in experience and thought, and more valuable to others.

We may say in general that the existence of a person is beneficial or injurious in that degree in which it is beneficial or injurious to the community or humanity. This statement is based upon the truism that the whole is more than any of its parts.

The degrees of wrong, therefore, should depend upon the degree of danger or injury (moral, intellectual, physical, or financial) which a thought, feeling, willing, or action brings to the community.

This same principle should be applied to degrees of exaggerated wrong or crime.

But it may be said, should not the degree of freedom or of personal guilt be the main basis for the punishment of the criminal? The force of this objection is evident; historically, the idea of freedom has been the basis of criminal law; it has also been sanctioned by the experience of the race; and although no claim is made of carrying it into practice without serious difficulties in the way of strict justice (difficulties inevitable to any system), yet it has not only been an invaluable service, but a necessity to humanity. This is not only true on criminal lines, but this idea has been the conscious basis of our highest moral ideas.

But at the same time it must be admitted that the exaggeration of the idea of freedom has been one of the main causes of vengeance, which has left its traces in blood, fire, martyrdom, and dungeon; and though at present vengeance seldom takes such extreme forms, yet it is far

n moral and on biblical grounds, as far as human
rned, vengeance can find little support; an example
bility is the fact that some of the best prison wardens
an until some time after the offense, so that there may
the part of either that it is an expression of ven-
fender is generally reasoned with kindly, but firmly,
must be punished, otherwise the good discipline of
not be maintained, which means that he is punished
others. With few exceptions, a revengeful tone or
he prisoner (the same is true outside of prison) always
stirs up similar feelings in the prisoner, which are often
bad behavior and crime, and need no development.
rmness is the desirable combination. Vengeance pro-
.

e deterministic view of the world, the highest morality
proof is that some fatalists are rigidly moral. A
alysis will show that persons who are loved and
ose whose very nature is to do good—that is, they
could not see a fellow-being suffer; that is, from
their nature, they were from infancy of a kind dispo-
ire the sturdy nature who, by long struggle, has
l goal; but we can not love him always. He is not
disposition; this is not a necessity of his nature. As
oes, "There are very good people with whom the Lord
t live."

spontaneity of a kind act that gives it its beauty,
calculating, no reasoning, no weighing in the bal-
The grace of morality is in its naturalness. But go
we like a good apple more and a bad apple less be-
ecessarily good or bad? And if we admitted that every
willing, and acting of men were as necessary as the
vould we like honest men less and liars more? True,
modify our estimation of some men, but it would be
of better feeling towards all men.

one's personal convictions may be, questions of the
will and the like must be set aside, not because they
nt, but simply because enough is not known regard-
conditions (psychological and physiological) under
d think. If we were obliged to withhold action in the
inal for the reason that we did not know whether the
ot (allowing for all misconceptions as to this whole
ommunity would be wholly unprotected. If a tiger
streets, the first question would not be whether he
. We should imprison the criminal, *first of all, because*
the community.

But if it be asked, how there can be responsibility without freedom? the answer is that there is at least the feeling of responsibility in cases where there is little or no freedom; that is, there is sometimes no proportion between the feeling of responsibility and the amount of responsibility afterwards shown. The main difficulty, however, is that in our present state of knowledge it is impossible to know whether this very feeling of responsibility or of freedom is not itself necessarily caused either psychologically or physiologically or both. If we admit that we are compelled to believe we are free (as some indeterminists seem to claim), we deny freedom in this very statement. Another obvious and practical ground for our ignorance as to this point is the fact that, although for generations the best and greatest minds have not failed to give it their attention, yet up to the present time the question remains *sub judice*. If we carried out practically the theory of freedom, we should have to punish some of the greatest criminals the least, since, from their coarse organization and lack of moral sense, their responsibility would be very small.

There is no objection to speaking of freedom in the sense that a man as an individual may be free in regard to his surroundings and can influence those around him, as is the case in strong characters which can be independent of their outward environment, and so act freely. But to say that within the man himself, within his character or personality (body and mind), there is freedom is going entirely beyond our knowledge, for there is little or nothing demonstrated concerning the workings or relations of brain and mind.

Dr. Paul Carus well expresses a similar idea when he says: "A free man, let us say an artist, full of an idea, executes his work without any compulsion; he works of his own free will. His actions are determined by a motive of his own, not by foreign pressure. Therefore, we call him free."

A scientific ethics must regard the question of freedom as an unsettled problem. Any ethics would be unethical in taking as one of its bases so debatable a question.

Our general, sociological, ethical principle (as above stated) is *that the idea of wrong depends upon the moral, intellectual, physical, and financial danger or injury which a thought, feeling, willing, or acting brings to humanity.*

But, accepting this principle, the important question is, just what are these thoughts, feelings, willings, and actions, and by what method are they to be determined? The first part of this question, on account of the narrow and limited knowledge at present in those lines, can be answered only very imperfectly, if at all. As to the method, that of science seems to us the only one that can eventually be satisfactory. By the application of the scientific method is meant that all facts, especially psychological (sociological, historical, etc.), physiological, and pathological, must form the basis of investigation. Psychological facts that

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atively few in number. Physiologically, more facts
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is criminology, the subject-matter of which touches the popular mind very closely, owing, in a great measure, to the influence of the press; and though this has its dangers, yet it is the duty of this, as of every science, to make its principles and conclusions as clear as possible to the public, since in the end such questions vitally concern them.

Crime can be said, in a certain sense, to be nature's experiment on humanity. If a nerve of a normal organism is cut, the organs in which irregularities are produced are those which the nerve controls. In this way the office of a nerve in the normal state may be discovered. The criminal is, so to speak, the severed nerve of society, and the study of him is a practical way (though indirect) of studying normal men. And since the criminal is seven eighths like other men, such a study is, in addition, a direct inquiry into normal humanity.

The relation also of criminology to society and to sociological questions is already intimate, and may in the future become closer. Just what crime is at present depends more upon time, location, race, country, nationality, and even the state in which one resides. But notwithstanding the extreme relativity of the idea of crime, there are some things in our present social life that are questionable. A young girl of independence, but near poverty, tries to earn her own living at $3 a week, and if, having natural desires for a few comforts and some taste for her personal appearance, she finally, through pressure, oversteps the bound, society, which permits this condition of things, immediately ostracizes her. It borders on criminality that a widow works fifteen hours a day in a room in which she lives, making trousers at 10 cents a pair, out of which she and her family must live, until they gradually run down toward death from want of sufficient nutrition, fresh air, and any comfort. It is criminally questionable to leave stoves in cars, so that if the passenger is not seriously injured, but only wedged in, he will have the additional chances of burning to death. It has been a general truth, and in some cases is still, that so many persons must perish by fire before private individuals will furnish fire escapes to protect their own patrons. It is a fact that over five thousand people are killed yearly in the United States at railroad grade crossings, most of whose lives could have been spared had either the road or the railroad passed either one over the other. But it is said that such improvements would involve an enormous expense; that is, practically, to admit that the extra money required is of more consequence than the five thousand human lives. And yet, strange as it may seem, if a brutal murderer is to lose his life, and there is the least doubt as to his premeditation, a large part of the community is often aroused into moral excitement, if not indignation, while the innocently murdered railroad passenger excites little more than a murmur.

There is, perhaps, no subject upon which the public conscience is more tender than the treatment of the criminal.

lly, the explanation is simple, for the public have been
ally to feel the misfortune and sufferings of the criminal;
to realize, since the thought is confined generally to one
time. But if the public could all be eye-witnesses to a
st brutal railroad accidents, the consciousness gained
oped into conscientiousness in the division of their sym-
this feeling, however paradoxical, is a sincere, though
rbid, expression of unselfish humanitarianism; for the
ulses are of the most ethical order, and overcultivation
than undercultivation. The moral climax of this feel-
d when the Founder of Christianity was placed between

INSTRUCTION IN CRIMINOLOGY.

repared by Lombroso for the International Penological
question whether it will be advisable to organize instruc-
cience. That is, by what means could there be added
udy of the facts and questions of application, without
h the performance of duties and without prejudice to the

ountry and Europe, both past and present, science and
have not only done almost nothing, but have manifested
n criminological subjects. They have taken the position
at crime is a necessary and incurable evil, and so there
troubling about it. Yet penitentiary and carcerial sci-
ost complicated and most susceptible to instruction of
s. To construct the most healthy, most economical, and
rison cell or workshop is a desideratum. The same is
construction of women's prisons, houses of arrest for
s, innocent or guilty, and places for witnesses.
ur jurists study law books much more than they do
yet perhaps one half of the time of our courts is con-
als. Criminals are considered by many jurists, prison
the public as normal men, who are unlucky and unfor-
ndividual study of the criminal and crime is a necessity
protected from ex-convicts, the most costly and the most
s we have. But the criminal can not be studied without
examined. For the love of science and humanity we
mination of the sick, of pregnant women by young men,
in surgical clinics of fractured members; the visiting,
d individual study of the insane, although these are
rions to the insane. But the criminal may not receive
t submit to an anthropometrical examination. Why
ls be so privileged a class? An accused innocent person
ame and life, with photograph, published in the news-

papers; and yet objections are raised to the study of habitual criminals for scientific purposes.

Benedikt, a specialist in craniology at the University of Vienna, says that to correct the criminal and protect society the criminal must be studied scientifically. For this purpose the universities, higher courts of justice, and prisons should have places for instruction and investigation.

According to Lambroso's idea, criminological instruction should comprehend: (*a*) A theoretical part on law, ordinances, and carcerial regulations, kinds of cells, etc.; (*b*) A study of criminal statistics, penal theories, conditional liberation, patronage, etc.; (*c*) Studies in criminal anthropology and psychiatry; (*d*) A wholly practical part, consisting of the examination of the places of detention, cells, etc.

In order to understand what the scientific study of a criminal means, we give in detail important points noted by Benelli, Tamburini, and Lombroso.

Generalities.—Name, age, country, profession, civil state.

1. *Anthropometrical examination.*—Development of skeleton, stature, development of muscular system, weight. Color: of skin, hair, iris, uniformly colored, double coloration, peripheral and central, non-uniformly colored, color predominant, color not predominant, beard. Piliferous system. Tatooing. Craniometry: face, height, bizygomatic diameter, facial type, facial index; nose: profile, dimensions, direction, anomalies; teeth: form, dimensions, anomalies; eyes; neck; thorax; lungs; heart; genital organs; disfigurements.

2. *Examination of sensibility.*—Touch: electric current, left hand, right hand, tongue; aesthesiometer of Weber: right hand, left hand, tongue. Pain: algometer of Lombroso: left and right hands, tongue. Sensibility: muscular, topographic, thermic, meteorological, magnetic, metallic, hypnotic, hypnotic credulity, visual, acoustic, olfactive, gustative, chromatic, sensual (generative): first sensual relations, aberrations; anomalies.

3. *Examination of motility.* Voluntary movements: gait, speech, language, writing, reflexes: muscular force: dynamometry; manual skill; anomalies.

4. *Examination of vegetative functions.*—Circulation, respiration, thermogeny; digestion; secretions: saliva, urine, sweat.

5. *Psychical examination.*—Perception (illusions); ideation (hallucinations); reasoning; will (impulsion); memory; intelligence: works, writings; slang; conscience; sentiments: affective, moral, religious; passions; instincts; sleep; moral sense; habitual expression of physiognomy; psychometry; anomalies.

6. *Anamnestic examinations.*—Family, parents; state of family; daughters, sons; age of parents; history, diseases, crimes of parents. Precedents: education, instruction, intellectual and political development, diseases; traumatic accidents, crimes, habitual character, occupation

st information: last crimes, cause of crime, repentance, vous diseases and mental anomalies (intercurrent);

CRIMINOLOGICAL LITERATURE.

tude anthropologique et médico-légale, par CESARE LOMBROSO, 1re-dition italienne, avec préface par M. Letourneau. Paris, 1887.

ve in our savage ancestors was the necessity of self-tion, blow for blow. In plants we find the equivalents ase of certain species which entrap and kill insects. re more similar to those of man, are more mechanical, ces in consciousness. In men continual aggressions ncing wrongs, and vengeance appeared, giving the law ce, retaliation, which became a duty. But as some of f this law were overlooked, the legal power became a tion; the punishments were of the most cruel nature. vague feeling, an echo of an ancient retaliation in our f punishment rests on free will, the worst men, the ture, should have a very light punishment or none. should be based on social utility scientifically demon- of studying law texts, we need to study the criminal. nature has a feeble cranial capacity, a heavy and de- rge orbital capacity, projecting superciliary ridges, an symmetrical cranium, a scanty beard or none, but rojecting ears, frequently a crooked or flat nose. Crim- to Daltonism; lefthandedness is common; their mus- ble. Alcoholic and epileptical degeneration exists in a Their nerve centers are frequently pigmented. They culty. Their moral degeneration corresponds with heir criminal tendencies are manifested in infancy lty, inclination to steal, excessive vanity, impulsive criminal by nature is lazy, debauched, cowardly, not morse, without foresight; fond of tattooing; his hand- liar, signature complicated and adorned with flour- is widely diffused, abbreviated, and full of arch- associations they return to primitive social forms. e of the persistence of an inferior race type is atavistic. inal is without remedy, he must be continually con- d no provisional liberty or mercy; the ancient tradi- initiatives should be upheld; the more we diminish nsibility, the more we increase that of society, which re. Nature is responsible for the born criminal, society ure) for the criminal by occasion.

ll of facts; it shows the sincerity and patience of the n expert experimenter, and a person of philosophical has given an extensive description of the born criminal

considered physically, morally, and intellectually. The author seems to us to go too far in holding to the incorrigibility of the born criminal, and in not allowing him provisional liberty; the incurability of the recidivist is pushed too far, for neither of these positions is supported by a sufficient number of scientific facts.

La criminologie, étude sur la nature du crime et la théorie de la pénalité, par R. GAROFALO, agrégé de l'université de Naples. Paris, 1888. pp. 420.

The science of penology must not rest on the idea of freedom, which is in contradiction with scientific facts; on the idea of freedom the hardest criminal should go free, as he has least control over his acts. The penological criterion is social necessity, abandoning the idea of moral responsibility of the individual. The present system has neither cured nor terrified the prisoner; after his sentence is served he is as dangerous as ever. The laws should be changed so as to be in accordance with criminological facts. Crime is a harmful action, that injures at the same time the moral sense of aggregate humanity. Murder, parricide, infanticide, robbery, have not always been crimes; but the analysis of the sentiments and not of actions is the basis for a criterion. The race possesses innate moral instincts as it does a physical type; when the moral sense becomes psychical it is subject to alterations, diseases, can be lost or is wanting, and is like any other organic monstrosity. The moral sense of aggregate humanity consists only in the altruistic sentiments which can be reduced to benevolence and justice. A crime is the violation of the elementary altruistic sentiments of pity and probity. In Europe the relative increase of crime has advanced with civilization, which shows that the present methods are almost a failure. Punishments have become less severe; moral responsibility is more considered, and capital punishment is rare.

A criminal type is as well established as an Italian type; not a single characteristic constantly distinguishes this type, but the proportion of congenital anomalies is larger in any given number of criminals than in an equal number of noncriminals. Recidivation of the criminal is the rule, reformation the exception. The absence of elementary moral instincts is not an infirmity; instinctive criminals are not sick nor insane; perversity is natural. The criminal is a being at present unadapted to surrounding circumstances; he is a monster, and presents the traits of past racial regression. All criminals are born, but predisposition does not exclude the influence of surroundings. One class of criminals are those with regressive, arrested moral development, innate criminals; for these society has but one remedy, elimination. Another class are those somewhat deficient in the feeling of pity; and a third class lack the sentiment of probity. Atavistic perversity exists in spite of the best surroundings; the influence of intellectual instruction is almost null. In Spain, where two-thirds of the population are illiterate, criminals are few. Religious instruction, if

if its purpose is moral teaching, has good influence, er cases. Crimes due to cupidity will not cease by al conditions. Economic conditions may change the they are not a cause of crime in general. In the century a high degree of criminality was greatly cond half (1828–'84) crime has increased enormously has been made milder; the increase of recidivists is of all criminality; this points to a concentration der its prevention easier. Murder severely injures the community; a reaction in the form of desire of ciety is produced through lack of adaptation. The ns of exclusion is death, but this applies only to the e. It is the duty of society to eliminate those who pted to society. Punishment is not to punish the iminate him absolutely or partially. The death pen- gland the fewest criminals of all Europe. The com- here is no crime without moral responsibility and should be in proportion to the gravity of the crime with scientific facts. It should be first determined to inals the culprit belongs; a man who hires an assas- ividual who outraged his family is quite a different assassin. The cause of a murder and the absence ry on the part of the victim are the criterions to be remeditation. The worst criminals commit murder ation; but in the case of the criminals by occasion icates a cruel nature, and elimination may be neces- r classes of criminals, deportation, fine, removal to ent, agricultural colonies, work for the state, etc. eas of the author are social utility and the natural rime.

tensive experience as a magistrate gives peculiar in- on the pœnological side of criminality. He seems to rp a line between abnormality and disease. The born teratological, a moral monster; but a teratological arise from a deviation in utero—a real disease of the ce on the absolute elimination of the born criminal is ause it assumes the criminal's utter want of adapta- ich is not warranted by a sufficient number of facts; his want of adaptation, we fail to see why a society in conscience is highly sensitive might not substitute n; for it is a question of social utility whether the ublic conscience is not morally injurious.

studio sperimentale. GIUSEPPE ORANO. Roma, 1883. pp. 298.

siders recidivity theoretically in the first part of his entally in the second part. After taking up the gen- gislation of recidivity, and the dissension between

criminologists as to the legitimacy of the threatened repression of the recidivists, he passes in the second part to the question of the aggravation of punishment in respect to age and physical conditions, and to the relations of recidivity to insanity, and comes to the following conclusions: Such ideas as the relative insufficiency of objective physical force of punishment on account of the insensibility which the criminal opposes to it, the contempt which the guilty one manifests, the social danger which comes with the relapse, the consequent necessity of hindering this by the menace of a greater castigation, are abstract considerations, *a priori* criteria, bereft of the aid of positive inquiry, and consequently more hypotheses and conjectures than reasons. Thirty per cent of the criminals in Italy are recidivists. In France it was 43 per cent for men and 31 per cent for women in 1867; in Belgium at that time it was 45 per cent and in Austria 59 per cent for men and 51 per cent for women; in Switzerland 45 per cent. The average shows that 45 per cent of criminals are recidivists. The second and successive punishments are in general expiated in that period of time in which the human organism commences to lose its natural vigor; there is thus a certain aspect of injustice and inutility in punishing the recidivist. There is also a greater bitterness in a second or successive punishment between the ages of 25 and 30, the period in which recidivity is most conspicuous. As to the relation of recidivity to the carcerial system, some of the most illustrious and competent men say that about six-sevenths of the men are allured into relapse. Beranger says it is the prison which makes the recidivist. The influence of surroundings can be greater or less, but it does not affect substantially the great damage done by increasing the punishment of recidivists.

Internationale kriminalistische Vereinigung: Erste Landesversammlung der Gruppe deutsches Reich. Halle a. S., den 26. und 27. März, 1890.

The German division of the International Penal Association met in March, and discussed the following questions: (1) Under what presuppositions is the introduction of the conditional sentence into German legislation expedient? (2) How is the fact of recidivation to be determined legally; and what means of punishment are to be recommended for the incorrigible? After many varied modifications the association finally voted on the following questions: (1) Is recidivation to be assumed if the new and former criminal act lie in the same penal grade as designated by legislation? (2) Should recidivistic superannuation be admitted? (3) Should repeated recidivation form a necessary ground for sharpening the punishment? (4) Is a relatively increased restraint upon freedom to be recommended as a means of punishment for repeated recidivation, with the permission of imprisonment in the workhouse as a consequence? (5) Should the law touch upon regulations which insure the permanent separation of evil doers (considered by the penal magistrate as incorrigible) into special divisions, of

se, or insane asylums? (6) Should a conditional release detention be granted to those considered incorrigible? affirmed unanimously questions 1, 2, 3, and 6, and by questions 4 and 5. Another question was: Is it expe- jurists practically and theoretically (*i. e.*, by training riminology, etc.) for the penal executive? (*a*) before; (*b*) examination. The main question was almost unan- l. After the laying aside of the subordinate question question *b* received a large majority of the votes.

administration de la justice criminelle, 1887. Revue Scientifique. 8 Mars, 1890.

port of criminal justice in France for 1887, published good idea of French criminality. On looking at the eem at first sight that the high degree of criminality es was due to population, but a more thorough exami- hat it depends on ethnographical conditions. All the east of France (Normandy, Isle of France, Champagne, ers) show a high criminality; below (Sarthe, Orne Eure- Yonne) a medium degree; and in the center, west, and criminality is feeble, with the exception of the border ses-Pyrénées, Haute-Savoie, Savoie, Doubs, Vosges), ore elevated degree of criminality than the west and ce, in which the mortality is greater than in the other map of suicides corresponds exactly with that of crim- n Corsica, where there are very few suicides. The con- n of suicide (not special to France) deserves attention.

	Absolute number.	Number per 100,000 of population.	Year.	Absolute number.	Number per 100,000 of population.
...	5275	15	1882	7213	19
...	5525	15	1884	7572	20
...	5617	16	1885	7902	21
...	6434	17	1887	8292	21
...	6496	16			

e number of crimes from 1871 to 1887, the statistics are

	1871-1875.	1876-1880.	1881-1885.	1886.	1887.
.....	10	16	14	13	23
.....	17	14	10	9	8
.....	201	197	216	234	234
.....	206	194	176	166	169
.....	163	143	186	174	186
.....	651	669	783	712	654

ulation from 1871 to 1887 has increased, the table shows rime to lessen, although it is feeble. While foreigners

furnish 10 per cent of the crime, they constitute only 3 per cent of the population. The percentage of recidivists has continually increased: In 1871–1875, 47 per cent; in 1876–1880, 48 per cent; in 1886, 56 per cent; and in 1887, 54 per cent.

Alcoholism has diminished greatly: From 1873 to 1875 it was 81,416; from 1876 to 1880, 75,026; from 1881 to 1885, 67,155; in 1886, 61,346; and in 1887, 59,098.

In looking at the above results we are struck with the large proportion of crimes against chastity. The fact that suicide is so low in Corsica, while other crimes are numerous, suggests the law of antagonism between suicide and crimes of blood. According to these figures France (looked upon by some as a wicked country) is about the only place where crime is decreasing.

Ueber die körperlichen und geistigen Eigenthümlichkeiten der Verbrecher, Dr. v. Hölder. Archiv für Anthropologie, Januar, 1889.

The writer gives a short survey of facts taken from his varied and extensive experience as guardian of the insane and administrator of penal justice and prisons. His craniological remarks and his distinctions between insanity and criminality are especially valuable.

Though many characteristics are common to the insane and criminal, one is not justified in doing away with freedom of will; for criminals are not sick, like the insane. It is impossible from cranial asymmetries to conclude as to psychical characteristics. Physical signs of degeneration indicate nothing further than the presence of a tendency to psychical degeneration. It is scarcely a pardonable error to consider every man with these characteristics as a predestined criminal, as some of the Italian school would do (Garofalo).

The great influence of occupation, education, poverty, rough-handling, and misery is self evident. In such cases, where the tendency has a certain intensity, deformations and even physiognomical peculiarities form an important factor in patho psychical degeneration. The most important of these symptoms are found in the head and genital organs. Most of the characteristics come from the premature growing together of the sutures. The dropsy of the pia-mater can enlarge the cranium in all directions, so long as the sutures in childhood are capable of considerable extension; in the later growth of the edges the coronal suture remains an annular transverse depression from rachitis; a further misformation from the same cause is a flattening or deep depression around the occipital fossa. The inferior degrees of asymmetry of the two lateral cranial sides occur without the premature growing together of the sutures. This is mostly hereditary. The tying up of the head, as practiced in the south of France, has no influence on psychical development. If several sutures grow together in fœtal life or soon after birth, as in idiots, the form of the cranium is little changed, except it remains microcephalic. If the premature closing of several sutures

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is criminology, the subject-matter of which touches the popular mind very closely, owing, in a great measure, to the influence of the press; and though this has its dangers, yet it is the duty of this, as of every science, to make its principles and conclusions as clear as possible to the public, since in the end such questions vitally concern them.

Crime can be said, in a certain sense, to be nature's experiment on humanity. If a nerve of a normal organism is cut, the organs in which irregularities are produced are those which the nerve controls. In this way the office of a nerve in the normal state may be discovered. The criminal is, so to speak, the severed nerve of society, and the study of him is a practical way (though indirect) of studying normal men. And since the criminal is seven eighths like other men, such a study is, in addition, a direct inquiry into normal humanity.

The relation also of criminology to society and to sociological questions is already intimate, and may in the future become closer. Just what crime is at present depends more upon time, location, race, country, nationality, and even the state in which one resides. But notwithstanding the extreme relativity of the idea of crime, there are some things in our present social life that are questionable. A young girl of independence, but near poverty, tries to earn her own living at $3 a week, and if, having natural desires for a few comforts and some taste for her personal appearance, she finally, through pressure, oversteps the bound, society, which permits this condition of things, immediately ostracizes her. It borders on criminality that a widow works fifteen hours a day in a room in which she lives, making trousers at 10 cents a pair, out of which she and her family must live, until they gradually run down toward death from want of sufficient nutrition, fresh air, and any comfort. It is criminally questionable to leave stoves in cars, so that if the passenger is not seriously injured, but only wedged in, he will have the additional chances of burning to death. It has been a general truth, and in some cases is still, that so many persons must perish by fire before private individuals will furnish fire escapes to protect their own patrons. It is a fact that over five thousand people are killed yearly in the United States at railroad grade crossings, most of whose lives could have been spared had either the road or the railroad passed either one over the other. But it is said that such improvements would involve an enormous expense; that is, practically, to admit that the extra money required is of more consequence than the five thousand human lives. And yet, strange as it may seem, if a brutal murderer is to lose his life, and there is the least doubt as to his premeditation, a large part of the community is often aroused into moral excitement, if not indignation, while the innocently murdered railroad passenger excites little more than a murmur.

There is, perhaps, no subject upon which the public conscience is more tender than the treatment of the criminal.

ly, the explanation is simple, for the public have been
lly to feel the misfortune and sufferings of the criminal;
o realize, since the thought is confined generally to one
time. But if the public could all be eye-witnesses to a
brutal railroad accidents, the consciousness gained
ped into conscientiousness in the division of their sym-
his feeling, however paradoxical, is a sincere, though
oid, expression of unselfish humanitarianism; for the
lses are of the most ethical order, and overcultivation
han undercultivation. The moral climax of this feel-
when the Founder of Christianity was placed between

INSTRUCTION IN CRIMINOLOGY.

epared by Lombroso for the International Penological
uestion whether it will be advisable to organize instruc-
ence. That is, by what means could there be added
dy of the facts and questions of application, without
the performance of duties and without prejudice to the

untry and Europe, both past and present, science and
ave not only done almost nothing, but have manifested
criminological subjects. They have taken the position
t crime is a necessary and incurable evil, and so there
roubling about it. Yet penitentiary and carcerial sci-
ost complicated and most susceptible to instruction of
s. To construct the most healthy, most economical, and
ison cell or workshop is a desideratum. The same is
construction of women's prisons, houses of arrest for
, innocent or guilty, and places for witnesses.
ur jurists study law books much more than they do
yet perhaps one half of the time of our courts is con-
ls. Criminals are considered by many jurists, prison
he public as normal men, who are unlucky and unfor-
dividual study of the criminal and crime is a necessity
protected from ex-convicts, the most costly and the most
we have. But the criminal can not be studied without
examined. For the love of science and humanity we
ination of the sick, of pregnant women by young men,
surgical clinics of fractured members; the visiting,
d individual study of the insane, although these are
ions to the insane. But the criminal may not receive
submit to an anthropometrical examination. Why
s be so privileged a class? An accused innocent person
ame and life, with photograph, published in the news-

papers; and yet objections are raised to the study of habitual criminals for scientific purposes.

Benedikt, a specialist in craniology at the University of Vienna, says that to correct the criminal and protect society the criminal must be studied scientifically. For this purpose the universities, higher courts of justice, and prisons should have places for instruction and investigation.

According to Lambroso's idea, criminological instruction should comprehend: (*a*) A theoretical part on law, ordinances, and carcerial regulations, kinds of cells, etc.; (*b*) A study of criminal statistics, penal theories, conditional liberation, patronage, etc.; (*c*) Studies in criminal anthropology and psychiatry; (*d*) A wholly practical part, consisting of the examination of the places of detention, cells, etc.

In order to understand what the scientific study of a criminal means, we give in detail important points noted by Benelli, Tamburini, and Lombroso.

Generalities.—Name, age, country, profession, civil state.

1. *Anthropometrical examination.*—Development of skeleton, stature, development of muscular system, weight. Color: of skin, hair, iris, uniformly colored, double coloration, peripheral and central, non-uniformly colored, color predominant, color not predominant, beard. Piliferous system. Tatooing. Craniometry: face, height, bizygomatic diameter, facial type, facial index; nose: profile, dimensions, direction, anomalies; teeth: form, dimensions, anomalies; eyes; neck; thorax; lungs; heart; genital organs; disfigurements.

2. *Examination of sensibility.*—Touch: electric current, left hand, right hand, tongue; aesthesiometer of Weber: right hand, left hand, tongue. Pain: algometer of Lombroso: left and right hands, tongue. Sensibility: muscular, topographic, thermic, meteorological, magnetic, metallic, hypnotic, hypnotic credulity, visual, acoustic, olfactive, gustative, chromatic, sensual (generative); first sensual relations, aberrations; anomalies.

3. *Examination of motility.* Voluntary movements: gait, speech, language, writing, reflexes; muscular force; dynamometry; manual skill; anomalies.

4. *Examination of vegetative functions.*—Circulation, respiration, thermogeny; digestion; secretions: saliva, urine, sweat.

5. *Psychical examination.*—Perception (illusions); ideation (hallucinations); reasoning; will (impulsion); memory; intelligence; works, writings; slang; conscience; sentiments: affective, moral, religious; passions; instincts; sleep; moral sense; habitual expression of physiognomy; psychometry; anomalies.

6. *Anamnestic examinations.*—Family, parents; state of family; daughters, sons; age of parents; history, diseases, crimes of parents. Precedents; education, instruction, intellectual and political development, diseases; traumatic accidents, crimes, habitual character, occupation

st information: last crimes, cause of crime, repentance, vous diseases and mental anomalies (intercurrent);

CRIMINOLOGICAL LITERATURE.

tude anthropologique et médico-légale, par CESARE LOMBROSO, tra-dition italienne, avec préface par M. Letourneau. Paris, 1887.

ve in our savage ancestors was the necessity of self-tion, blow for blow. In plants we find the equivalents ase of certain species which entrap and kill insects. are more similar to those of man, are more mechanical, ces in consciousness. In men continual aggressions ncing wrongs, and vengeance appeared, giving the law ice, retaliation, which became a duty. But as some of f this law were overlooked, the legal power became a tion; the punishments were of the most cruel nature. a vague feeling, an echo of an ancient retaliation in our f punishment rests on free will, the worst men, the ture, should have a very light punishment or none. should be based on social utility scientifically demon- of studying law texts, we need to study the criminal. nature has a feeble cranial capacity, a heavy and de- rge orbital capacity, projecting superciliary ridges, an symmetrical cranium, a scanty beard or none, but rojecting ears, frequently a crooked or flat nose. Crim- to Daltonism; lefthandedness is common; their mus- ble. Alcoholic and epileptical degeneration exists in a Their nerve centers are frequently pigmented. They culty. Their moral degeneration corresponds with heir criminal tendencies are manifested in infancy lty, inclination to steal, excessive vanity, impulsive criminal by nature is lazy, debauched, cowardly, not morse, without foresight; fond of tattooing; his hand- liar, signature complicated and adorned with flour- is widely diffused, abbreviated, and full of arch- associations they return to primitive social forms. e of the persistence of an inferior race type is atavistic. inal is without remedy, he must be continually con- d no provisional liberty or mercy; the ancient tradi- initiatives should be upheld; the more we diminish nsibility, the more we increase that of society, which re. Nature is responsible for the born criminal, society ure) for the criminal by occasion.

ll of facts; it shows the sincerity and patience of the n expert experimenter, and a person of philosophical has given an extensive description of the born criminal

considered physically, morally, and intellectually. The author seems to us to go too far in holding to the incorrigibility of the born criminal, and in not allowing him provisional liberty; the incurability of the recidivist is pushed too far, for neither of these positions is supported by a sufficient number of scientific facts.

La criminologie, étude sur la nature du crime et la théorie de la pénalité, par R. GAROFALO, agregé de l'université de Naples. Paris, 1888. pp. 120.

The science of penology must not rest on the idea of freedom, which is in contradiction with scientific facts; on the idea of freedom the hardest criminal should go free, as he has least control over his acts. The penological criterion is social necessity, abandoning the idea of moral responsibility of the individual. The present system has neither cured nor terrified the prisoner; after his sentence is served he is as dangerous as ever. The laws should be changed so as to be in accordance with criminological facts. Crime is a harmful action, that injures at the same time the moral sense of aggregate humanity. Murder, parricide, infanticide, robbery, have not always been crimes; but the analysis of the sentiments and not of actions is the basis for a criterion. The race possesses innate moral instincts as it does a physical type; when the moral sense becomes psychical it is subject to alterations, diseases, can be lost or is wanting, and is like any other organic monstrosity. The moral sense of aggregate humanity consists only in the altruistic sentiments which can be reduced to benevolence and justice. A crime is the violation of the elementary altruistic sentiments of pity and probity. In Europe the relative increase of crime has advanced with civilization, which shows that the present methods are almost a failure. Punishments have become less severe; moral responsibility is more considered, and capital punishment is rare.

A criminal type is as well established as an Italian type; not a single characteristic constantly distinguishes this type, but the proportion of congenital anomalies is larger in any given number of criminals than in an equal number of noncriminals. Recidivation of the criminal is the rule, reformation the exception. The absence of elementary moral instincts is not an infirmity; instinctive criminals are not sick nor insane; perversity is natural. The criminal is a being at present unadapted to surrounding circumstances; he is a monster, and presents the traits of past racial regression. All criminals are born, but predisposition does not exclude the influence of surroundings. One class of criminals are those with regressive, arrested moral development, innate criminals; for these society has but one remedy, elimination. Another class are those somewhat deficient in the feeling of pity; and a third class lack the sentiment of probity. Atavistic perversity exists in spite of the best surroundings; the influence of intellectual instruction is almost null. In Spain, where two-thirds of the population are illiterate, criminals are few. Religious instruction, if

f its purpose is moral teaching, has good influence, er cases. Crimes due to cupidity will not cease by al conditions. Economic conditions may change the they are not a cause of crime in general. In the century a high degree of criminality was greatly cond half (1828–'84) crime has increased enormously has been made milder; the increase of recidivists is of all criminality; this points to a concentration der its prevention easier. Murder severely injures the community; a reaction in the form of desire of ciety is produced through lack of adaptation. The ns of exclusion is death, but this applies only to the e. It is the duty of society to eliminate those who pted to society. Punishment is not to punish the iminate him absolutely or partially. The death pen- gland the fewest criminals of all Europe. The com- here is no crime without moral responsibility and should be in proportion to the gravity of the crime with scientific facts. It should be first determined to inals the culprit belongs; a man who hires an assas- ividual who outraged his family is quite a different assassin. The cause of a murder and the absence y on the part of the victim are the criterions to be remeditation. The worst criminals commit murder ation; but in the case of the criminals by occasion icates a cruel nature, and elimination may be neces- r classes of criminals, deportation, fine, removal to ent, agricultural colonies, work for the state, etc. eas of the author are social utility and the natural rime.

tensive experience as a magistrate gives peculiar in- on the pœnological side of criminality. He seems to rp a line between abnormality and disease. The born teratological, a moral monster; but a teratological arise from a deviation in utero—a real disease of the ce on the absolute elimination of the born criminal is ause it assumes the criminal's utter want of adapta- ich is not warranted by a sufficient number of facts; his want of adaptation, we fail to see why a society in conscience is highly sensitive might not substitute n; for it is a question of social utility whether the ublic conscience is not morally injurious.

studio sperimentale. GIUSEPPE ORANO. Roma, 1883. pp. 298.

iders recidivity theoretically in the first part of his entally in the second part. After taking up the gen- gislation of recidivity, and the dissension between

criminologists as to the legitimacy of the threatened repression of the recidivists, he passes in the second part to the question of the aggravation of punishment in respect to age and physical conditions, and to the relations of recidivity to insanity, and comes to the following conclusions: Such ideas as the relative insufficiency of objective physical force of punishment on account of the insensibility which the criminal opposes to it, the contempt which the guilty one manifests, the social danger which comes with the relapse, the consequent necessity of hindering this by the menace of a greater castigation, are abstract considerations, *a priori* criteria, bereft of the aid of positive inquiry, and consequently more hypotheses and conjectures than reasons. Thirty per cent of the criminals in Italy are recidivists. In France it was 43 per cent for men and 31 per cent for women in 1867; in Belgium at that time it was 45 per cent and in Austria 59 per cent for men and 51 per cent for women; in Switzerland 45 per cent. The average shows that 45 per cent of criminals are recidivists. The second and successive punishments are in general expiated in that period of time in which the human organism commences to lose its natural vigor; there is thus a certain aspect of injustice and inutility in punishing the recidivist. There is also a greater bitterness in a second or successive punishment between the ages of 25 and 30, the period in which recidivity is most conspicuous. As to the relation of recidivity to the carcerial system, some of the most illustrious and competent men say that about six-sevenths of the men are allured into relapse. Beranger says it is the prison which makes the recidivist. The influence of surroundings can be greater or less, but it does not affect substantially the great damage done by increasing the punishment of recidivists.

Internationale kriminalistische Vereinigung; Erste Landesversammlung der Gruppe deutschen Reich. Halle a. S., den 26. und 27. März, 1890.

The German division of the International Penal Association met in March, and discussed the following questions: (1) Under what presuppositions is the introduction of the conditional sentence into German legislation expedient? (2) How is the fact of recidivation to be determined legally; and what means of punishment are to be recommended for the incorrigible? After many varied modifications the association finally voted on the following questions: (1) Is recidivation to be assumed if the new and former criminal act lie in the same penal grade as designated by legislation? (2) Should recidivistic superannuation be admitted? (3) Should repeated recidivation form a necessary ground for sharpening the punishment? (4) Is a relatively increased restraint upon freedom to be recommended as a means of punishment for repeated recidivation, with the permission of imprisonment in the workhouse as a consequence? (5) Should the law touch upon regulations which insure the permanent separation of evil doers (considered by the penal magistrate as incorrigible) into special divisions, of

ıse, or insane asylums? (6) Should a conditional release detention be granted to those considered incorrigible? affirmed unanimously questions 1, 2, 3, and 6, and by questions 4 and 5. Another question was: Is it expe- jurists practically and theoretically (*i. e.*, by training riminology, etc.) for the penal executive? (*a*) before; (*b*) examination. The main question was almost unan- l. After the laying aside of the subordinate question question *b* received a large majority of the votes.

'administration de la justice criminelle, 1887. Revue Scientifique. 8 Mars, 1890.

eport of criminal justice in France for 1887, published good idea of French criminality. On looking at the seem at first sight that the high degree of criminality es was due to population, but a more thorough exami- hat it depends on ethnographical conditions. All the east of France (Normandy, Isle of France, Champagne, ers) show a high criminality; below (Sarthe, Orne Eure- Yonne) a medium degree; and in the center, west, and criminality is feeble, with the exception of the border ses-Pyrénées, Haute-Savoie, Savoie, Doubs, Vosges), ore elevated degree of criminality than the west and ce, in which the mortality is greater than in the other map of suicides corresponds exactly with that of crim- in Corsica, where there are very few suicides. The con- on of suicide (not special to France) deserves attention.

	Absolute number.	Number per 100,000 of population.	Year.	Absolute number.	Number per 100,000 of population.
...	5275	15	1882	7213	19
...	5525	15	1884	7572	20
...	5617	16	1885	7902	21
...	6434	17	1887	8292	21
...	6496	18			

ıe number of crimes from 1871 to 1887, the statistics are

	1871-1875.	1876-1880.	1881-1885.	1886.	1887.
.....	10	10	14	13	23
.....	17	14	10	6	6
.....	204	197	210	234	234
.....	200	194	176	166	169
.....	143	143	186	174	186
.....	851	869	783	712	654

ulation from 1871 to 1887 has increased, the table shows crime to lessen, although it is feeble. While foreigners

furnish 10 per cent of the crime, they constitute only 3 per cent of the population. The percentage of recidivists has continually increased: In 1871–1875, 47 per cent; in 1876–1880, 48 per cent; in 1886, 56 per cent; and in 1887, 54 per cent.

Alcoholism has diminished greatly: From 1873 to 1875 it was 81,416; from 1876 to 1880, 75,026; from 1881 to 1885, 67,155; in 1886, 61,346; and in 1887, 59,098.

In looking at the above results we are struck with the large proportion of crimes against chastity. The fact that suicide is so low in Corsica, while other crimes are numerous, suggests the law of antagonism between suicide and crimes of blood. According to these figures France (looked upon by some as a wicked country) is about the only place where crime is decreasing.

Ueber die körperlichen und geistigen Eigenthümlichkeiten der Verbrecher, Dr. v. HÖLDER. Archiv für Anthropologie, Januar, 1889.

The writer gives a short survey of facts taken from his varied and extensive experience as guardian of the insane and administrator of penal justice and prisons. His craniological remarks and his distinctions between insanity and criminality are especially valuable.

Though many characteristics are common to the insane and criminal, one is not justified in doing away with freedom of will; for criminals are not sick, like the insane. It is impossible from cranial asymmetries to conclude as to psychical characteristics. Physical signs of degeneration indicate nothing further than the presence of a tendency to psychical degeneration. It is scarcely a pardonable error to consider every man with these characteristics as a predestined criminal, as some of the Italian school would do (Garofalo).

The great influence of occupation, education, poverty, rough-handling, and misery is self evident. In such cases, where the tendency has a certain intensity, deformations and even physiognomical peculiarities form an important factor in patho psychical degeneration. The most important of these symptoms are found in the head and genital organs. Most of the characteristics come from the premature growing together of the sutures. The dropsy of the pia mater can enlarge the cranium in all directions, so long as the sutures in childhood are capable of considerable extension; in the later growth of the edges the coronal suture remains an annular transverse depression from rachitis; a further misformation from the same cause is a flattening or deep depression around the occipital fossa. The inferior degrees of asymmetry of the two lateral cranial sides occur without the premature growing together of the sutures. This is mostly hereditary. The tying up of the head, as practiced in the south of France, has no influence on psychical development. If several sutures grow together in fœtal life or soon after birth, as in idiots, the form of the cranium is little changed, except it remains microcephalic. If the premature closing of several sutures

ame time, if the height increases at the expense of the
l becomes pointed; if the breadth is at the cost of the
e a pathological flat head. Premature closing of the
makes it smaller, low and flat, and causes the orbital
ct out. The closing of the sagittal suture makes the
ong, small, and high: both these forms are more frequent
ly than in brachycephaly. By the closing of half of the
a crooked growth of the cranial roof takes place, which
legree produces a kidney shaped form (plagiocephaly).
one side of the occipital suture makes the corresponding
n the other.

rmations are accompanied by those of the face. There is
f the microcephalic heads, and the flattened upper part
he pointed heads; further a high degree of asymmetry
f the face; the bent and flattened nose; so the asymme-
s; here belong the cases where the under jaw projects
per and *vice-versa;* and also where there is a bending of
eth; the gums are often too flat, too wide, and too small;
ting of the eyes, division of the iris; and sometimes skin
the corners of the eyes reminding one of the mongolian
The signs of degeneration in the ears are their smallness,
want of developed muscles; and very small laps, that

ions of the genital parts have a special diagnostic value,
of them in both sexes leads to sexual disorders of every
re causes of mental troubles. The most frequent deform-
rophy of the testicles, phimosis, stunted or deformed
orms of the urethra, growing together of the penis with
ypertrophy of the clitoris, closing of the back part of the
ed growth, club foot, and corresponding deformations in
s are seen in the skeleton.

egree of all the deformations are directly connected with
llations with the sphere of normality. Dr. Seiffer from
n of a large number of criminals found 47 per cent with
these signs of degeneration; 10 per cent had cranial and
s. These deformations are rarely greater in criminals
men, except in criminal idiots or cretins. Physiognomy
relation with facial and cranial signs of degeneration.
er, have great influence; the passage to prison physiog-
l. In prison garb a face makes quite a different impres-
mina's charge time looks very much. Out of 1,022 por-
possible in many cases to pronounce one a criminal from
y; one will see the features of the insane.

o classes of criminals. First, criminals by occasion;
sts. The basis of all criminality is inradicable tendency
furnish almost six times as many criminals as women;

it is easier for men to overstep the bounds of morality and custom. Most women criminals lose every trace of womanhood in demeanor. Criminals by occasion are those who become so through levity, passion, imprudence, unfavorable surroundings, and, above all, through abuse of alcohol. According to Baer 50 per cent of all crime comes from alcohol, three-fourths are crimes against the person, and only one-fourth against property, while the reverse is true with the recidivists. Minor criminals are to a large extent capable of improvement. To accomplish this, the perversity and exceptionableness of their actions must be recognized. The infanticides are the best of all criminals. The recidivists should be divided into two classes: one class includes those who for the most part have no mental or bodily signs of degeneration, caused by bad bringing up, society, poverty, sexual disorders, and those who make crime a trade or as a vengeance for injustice suffered. The improving of these is rare. The second class of recidivists comprises those with inborn criminal inclinations. In prison they are inclined to coarseness, boldness, resistance, and willful spoiling of their clothes; they may be regarded as in the first stages of insanity. But legally the recidivists are sharply distinguished from the insane. Delusions disorder the judgments of the insane, but not so in the case of the recidivist. Thieves, swindlers, and incendiaries, if not insane, are cowards; robbers and murderers are little affected by fear. Between mental health and insanity there are many cases of hereditary anomalies: nervousness, irritability through the least cause, peculiar unconquerable inclinations, eccentricities, propensity to dissolute ideas with no purpose, a mingling of contradictory peculiarities, of one-sided mental powers, this all united with a weakness of deliberation; here belongs also the inborn criminal instinct. According to Richter, most crimes, especially murder, audacious burglary, common theft, embezzlement, resistance of state power, come by epileptics or in those with a tendency to epilepsy. Those addicted to alcohol are light offenders. Those with hereditary mental weakness are given to crimes of unchastity.

The class of recidivists is a mixed one: (1) Those who have a positive tendency to insanity or epilepsy; (2) those whose family antecedents plainly lead them to crime; (3) those whose morality and sense of honor are destroyed through training and environment.

Criminal phenomena and manifestations of insanity are a distorted or diseased expression of mental activities which by themselves are present in everyone; but in some they develop in one or the other direction. No one is sure that his mental soundness can not be endangered through outer or inner troubles or that he can escape inclinations, which might lead to crime. The increase of crime keeps step with that of population, or, rather, with its increase in density, as in large cities. The increase of both insanity and criminality is due to overpopulation.

lle, étude sur les facultés intellectuelles et morales dans leur état normal nifestations anomales chez les aliénés et chez les criminels. Prosper is, 1868 (3 vols.).

poch-making book in criminal psychology and, though k, is full of valuable information. Volume 1 takes up ology; volumes 2 and 3 abnormal psychology.

defines pschyology as the science of the mental faculties iverse manifestations; psychology should not depart from ature; all metaphysical questions must be set aside, since me from observation. There are two species of psychical ntellectual and the moral. The intellectual are percep- and reflection. The moral faculties are instinctive. The the only one of the instinctive faculties which is not only gotistical motive, but by the idea of duty and obligation, te of the pain it causes.

believes in freedom of will when the feeling of duty in case of simple desire there is no freedom. Freedom al liberty, is the power which decides between the good fter a deliberation made clear by the sentiment of duty. s is put upon this point. Criminal psychology is treated ensively, taking up especially parricides, homicides, in- cides; incendiaries, thieves, prostitutes; prisons, death revention. The author, although a spiritualist or ideal- imself to the facts of natural science. Insanity is the indness of the mind by the passions, which inspire false essence is the absence of moral opposition, of reason, larifying the mind.

facts, taken from the account of criminal processes in s Tribunaux from 1825 to 1868, lead the author to hold malefactors are deprived of the noble sentiments of hu- ally of the moral sense, and so are not responsible. This , by the absence of moral reprobation before the crime y absence of remorse after the crime. Perversity, which and desire for crime and moral insensibility, including f elevated moral sentiments, are the two conditions e commission of crime.

of the grave moral anomaly of the great criminals, re not suitable; but moral treatment is required. The is treatment are: to cease to punish cruelly the moral inals, for it renders them worse, and to ameliorate them ssible, that they may not be returned to society unless ble of conducting themselves well. It is an honor to the moral laws are not seriously violated by crime, for not in the consciousness of criminals. The author con- le work in saying that the psychological ideas set forth the least the eternal principles of morality and justice

which God has placed in human hearts. According to these principles, individuals deprived of free will should not be punished, but treated morally; individuals who possess free will, and who at the same time freely commit faults, should be punished, in spite of their sincere regret, for these punishments are merited.

Hypnotism and Crime, Dr. J. M. Charcot. The Forum, April, 1890.

There is comparatively little written on criminal hypnotism. The ideas as set forth by the originator and leader of the Paris school are of all the more interest. Persons susceptible of hypnotization are nervous and capable of becoming hysterical, if not actually so, at the beginning of the experiments. Hypnotism and hysteria are near akin. Hypnotism is a genuine neurosis, not a physiological state. There are three states: lethargy, catalepsy, and somnambulism; in the first two, particularly in lethargy, there is absolute unconsciousness, the subject is motionless, his will in abeyance, there is no suggestibility. In the third state the subject hears, sees, receives, and carries out suggestions given by the one who hypnotized him. An important fact is that on awaking he recollects, outside of the suggestion given him, nothing that has happened during the sleep; but he will recollect it in a second period of hypnotic somnambulism, unless a contradictory suggestion be given. This loss and this recovery of recollection under fixed conditions is important in medico legal hypnotism.

Rape and attempts at rape are the most frequent crimes upon hypnotized persons. Gilles de la Tourette is able to cite five cases of this class developed in action at law—not a small number, considering the difficulties of detection. The problem to be solved is this: "Given the suggestibility of a somnambule, can one use him to do a criminal act to which he would never have consented outside of the hypnotic sleep?" Suppose a subject put to sleep, and in the somnambulic state he is told: "You know A.; he is a contemptible fellow and is ever trying to injure you. He must be put out of the way. Here is a dagger, to morrow you will go to his house and stab him. You are not to remember that I ordered you to kill him, even if you be hypnotized again." This can be done in the laboratory.

But some subjects refuse to obey; the training of subjects is not easy; it takes time, and suitable subjects are not numerous. Suppose the subject is ready to act, but the victim does not pass, what happens? In most cases a fit of hysteria, or an attack of acute delirium, or of babbling mania. Thus, it is as important that the conditions be realized as that the suggestion be accepted. Now, no one has been able to discover one single crime of this kind actually committed in real life. A criminal desires first of all to escape punishment; he will not make sure of his revenge and conceal himself from prosecution by putting a weapon in the hand of a lunatic somnambule. Suppose a somnambule signs a check; on awaking he will hardly part with his property with-

e will ask himself how he came to sign such a paper; n might be embarrassing to the holder of the check. Al- rts will seldom be called upon to consider crimes com- ambules or upon somnambules, yet there is danger in on, that is in the injurious effects of ill-advised hypnoti- ons who are not physicians. We can track a "show- r" by the persons he succeeded with, who become nerv- e; some fall into deep sleep out of which it is difficult to ey are unfitted for duties of daily life. Others, and they y, have convulsions resembling the crises of confirmed notism should be confined to the medical profession. ourt has to inquire if the subject has an affection capa- rom ill-advised hypnotism. He ought not to go beyond The individual can (or can not) be put into the hypnotic

inelles, Leçons professées à la Faculté de Nancy, par M. le Pro- Bernheim. Revue de l'Hypnotisme, 1 er Mars, 1890.

written by the leader of the Nancy school, brings out in point of difference between the two schools. Free sibility are problems that present themselves to us. We ible in a certain measure; our reason leaves us some- ghts creep into our imagination out of our control; the to become an act. To what degree can we resist this n it not impose upon us the law of ideo-motor or ideo- natism, which transforms the idea into action? Can itted by suggestion? The Nancy school replies affirm- ault, Liégeois, Beaunis, and Bernheim say that certain can, under the influence of suggestion either during sleep ng, execute with docility what they have been ordered. eriments should carry conviction.

hool, with Charcot its eminent head, Brouardel, and rette replies in the negative. It is said that the crimes committed are those of the laboratory; that if we give er knife with which to kill his neighbor, he knows that nless; his confidence in us renders him obedient to the his is true in certain cases; the somnambulist knows it is n, and plays the comedy which we desire him to play. s so in natural dreams; we know that we dream; we y; we endure the most terrifying things without feel- n; the heart-beat and respiration are not accelerated; we o the drama in which we are actors; the individual is as with another of his selves; the conscious being is awake the new being, the subconscious. The feeling of our nger than that of the hallucination, which strikes our out reaching the moral foundation of our being. The certain hypnotized persons. I say to the subject, "The

dog will bite you," but he puts his hand upon the dog without the least dread. Other subjects resist suggestions; they retain a certain initiative. I command him to steal a watch, but he refuses; his moral character is a primordial anterior suggestion that neutralizes these other suggestions. But there are others who have no power of resistance; the subconscious in them annihilates their conscious being; these will commit crime. So in natural sleep we have dreams in which we are not ourselves; we fall from a precipice; we are terrified, respiration is anxious, the face pale; we groan in our sleep. There are a sufficient number of cases where crime has been committed during natural somnambulism. Can this not be true in provoked somnambulism?

The author gives the case of a young artist to whom he had suggested to steal his watch when he should awake, which he did without hesitating, and, when discovered, was confused, trembling, imploring them not to arrest him; this latter was a real emotion; the subject was honest by nature. Among somnambulists who act post-hypnotically there are some who do it as impulsive epileptics. Sometimes the epileptic knows that he kills, but does not know why. The insane sometimes say, "I have a foolish idea to set fire to the house or kill my child." Why, to what purpose? Do you not love your child? "Yes, I love him; I know it is wrong; I have no reason to kill him." In hypnotism a similar psychical state is realizable; it is a blind, instinctive impulsion, without reason; it is an impulsive insanity. There are others who do not act abruptly. The operator said to one during his sleep, "When you awake you will steal my purse on the table." On awaking he did. He was asked, "Why have you stolen?" He answers, "It is to take what you owe me; I lent you some money and you have not returned it; it is a restitution, not a theft." In this case I did not produce a perversion of the moral sense. Imagination turned the difficulty; it suggested to the subject a retroactive illusory memory through which the theft became allowable. To the subject was said, "Here is a pistol, and when you awake you will shoot this man." On awaking he does it. I ask him why. He replies that the man insulted him, had pointed a pistol at him; so he defended himself. Hallucination, like imagination, furnishes a rational pretext. This hallucination can be created, if auto-suggestion does not interfere. One can say to the patient, "Here is a man who has seduced your wife; when you awake you will avenge your honor and kill him." It would be still easier to suggest crime to those who love it, because there is no moral conscience to reject the suggestion. It is difficult to say whether a person with a developed moral sense could be directly so enfeebled or perverted as to commit a crime. But it is certain that an honest man can, when carried along by an impulsive giddiness, delirious idea, or hallucination. The nihilists, anarchists, socialists, revolutionists can become criminals by suggestion. The excited crowd, hearing the words, "spy," "traitor," become ferocious and bloody, and rush

ent person. It is a collective suggestion, a blind passion
masses. The brute nature is unchained.
jected that there is not on record a case of crime com-
e influence of hypnotic suggestion. This is possible;
not generally criminals. But if a hypnotizer was a
ld not tell it to the person he hypnotized, much-less to
he truth is, suggestion plays a rôle in many crimes.
sis without sleep; suggestion can occur during the
ome persons are normally very suggestible; a word can
analgesia, catalepsy, hallucinations, acts; the sugges-
hout their knowledge, and sometimes the suggester is
m.
nd their application: A young lady of good principles,
sweet disposition, marries. The first years are happy.
ins control of her. Her husband, involved in difficul-
nce, neglects her. Later her husband meditates ven-
this young man, who, having seduced his wife, estab-
usiness, which prospered, while his own was in peril.
engeance he gained again the heart of his wife, and
hat his rival is the cause of their trouble, and hints
be killed. Docile and yielding to threats, she arranges
her lover under the pretext of renewing old friendships.
she enters the "Madeleine" to pray; then coldly, with-
conducts her lover to her husband, who assassinates
, no remorse troubles her conscience. Nothing in her
l indicated such monstrous moral perversity. Before the
n of her "pension" testified to her sweetness of dispo-
r testified she was like soft dough; she went to vice as
. Her brain was open to all suggestions.

France et en Italie: étude médico-légale. Dr. ALBERT BOURNET. Paris, 1884. pp. 153.

a pupil of Lacassagne. The book is important as treat-
tical criminology of France and Italy. The following
general conclusions:
criminality has more than tripled; this increase is due
modifications of legislation; crimes against the person
e, but rather increased than diminished. Corsica, where
very frequent, is a veritable disturbing element. Crimes
y are diminishing.
rimes of blood are three times more numerous than in
rder is six times as frequent.
tion is on the increase in France, while in Italy it is
t it remains twice as frequent as in France.
notable diminution in poisonings in both countries,
g the same in the two countries.

(5) Violations and crimes against chastity are infinitely less frequent in Italy. In France these crimes are increasing at a frightful rate, especially among children.

(6) In France infanticide is twice as frequent as in Italy; while parricide is twice as frequent in Italy as in France. Abortion is about the same in both countries.

(7) In France and Italy the law of antagonism between suicides and crimes of blood is manifest; in France suicide has been constantly increasing, especially in the army, where it has doubled within the last ten years.

De la suggestion hypnotique chez les criminels, par le Dr. EM. LAURENT. Revue de l'Hypnotisme, 1 er Août, 1889.

The writer takes up in detail a hysterical individual accused of complicity in theft, and shows how that hypnotization is negative in results as to gaining a confession from the accused. The following conversation took place while the accused was in the hypnotic state:

Laurent. You are accused of complicity in theft. Patient. I am innocent. L. You knew, however, that the horse and carriage had been stolen? P. No, no; I didn't know anything about it. L. You knew it. P. I swear to you I did not. L. I tell you, you did know it. P. No (already more softly). L. I assure you that you knew it; you knew it. P. Yes, I knew it. L. Are you sure you knew it? P. I knew it. L. (again). You did not know that the carriage had been stolen? P. Yes, I knew it. (Thus it is evident that the will of the patient has been conquered by the will of the hypnotizer.) Dr. Laurent continues: You did not know that the carriage had been stolen. L. Yes, I knew it. P. No, I tell you, you did not know anything about it. P. No; I did not know anything about it. At this moment we do not know whether the patient knows it or not. Dr. Laurent says that the present state of our knowledge does not permit us to know whether the person hypnotized obeys his conscience or his will, which holds him under its dependence. We may add that little children on the witness stand can be made through the overbearing manner of the examiner to confess things about themselves or others that have been solely suggested at the time.

Dr. Laurent has an article in the same review for November 1, 1889, considering the influence of suggestive action over hysterical prisoners. A hysterical person is often wholly at the mercy of his surroundings. At one time he loves to engage in prayer, at another to go on a debauch. It is evident that such a person coming out of prison will be more dangerous than ever. The doctor cites cases from his own experience where the prisoners have made their hysterical comrade believe all sorts of absurdities about himself. He terms this a sort of suggestion *à froid*, a hypnotism in the walking state. Without doubt the suggestive action is less than in sleep; still it has its forces. He gives also an illustration of self-hypnotization in the case of a hysterical prisoner,

w days after his entrance into prison learns the cus- and tastes of the place, and believes himself to be one f criminals; he can be made to injure other prisoners. nclusion of the article is that all hysterical prisoners ted, and placed under the charge of a physician, en ernicious moral influence the prisoners have over them.

tudio delle anomalie del pterion nel cranio umano, ricerche di anato- RIMO e L. GAMBARA. Archivio per l'Antropologia e la Etnolo- 9.

s data of the wormian bones of the pterion are found in and prevail in the inferior races. As to the greater fre- bones in criminals as compared with normal men, Lom- r cent in normal men, 23 per cent in criminals, and 18 sane. Out of 114 craniums, these authors found 28 with per cent). The wormian bones of the pterion are more- d to each other in criminals than in normal men; ac- roso, 59 per cent in criminals, and 68 per cent in the r cent in normal men. These authors find the anomaly per cent. The presence of the wormian bones in the ated with the occipital median fossa; in normal men minals 16 per cent, in savages 26 per cent, in the in- , in monomaniacs 16 per cent, according to Lombroso. that, in connection with the greater frequency of the criminals, there are other defects or arrests of devel- t this coincidence occurs more frequently in criminals. ives especial value to these results is, that the authors umber of Italian museums.

, GUIDO ROSSI e S. OTTOLENGHI, Archivio di Psichiatria, Scienze ologia Criminale, Vol. XI, Fasc. 1. Torino, 1890.

le of the way in which criminals are studied by the s, we give the details of a single case.

vestigated two cases of typical born criminals. The ssi) is as follows: S. C., 38 years of age, born in Turin, y trade, condemned twice: the first time, ten-year sen- y to father. While in prison he attempted suicide nable to work, he wrote his history upon a vessel. sensations of heat in the head; was subject to vertigo; attack and epileptic prison insanity—*follia carceraria* g which he broke the glass in the window, for having xcessively; did not think in such moments of the pos- punished again; had a true morbid epileptical hypo- hysical examination gave: Pallid skin, thin chestnut eard, thin mustache, blue iris; nose long and crooked; ncisors hypertrophied, the lateral decayed; slightly squint in left eye, paralysis of the eyebrows. Crani-

ometry: anterior-posterior diameter, 182 millimeters; transverse, 151; anterior-posterior curve, 340; transverse, 317; total circumference, 540; cepalic index, 83; cranial capacity, 1,530; a depression at the union of the frontal and parietal, not evident whether it is due to a wound or not; lacks the ethnic type; a scar on right hand, arising out of a dispute after gambling. Sensibility: with Faradaic current, the right hand feels at 32, the left hand at 35; touch gives 3 millimeters for left and 2 for the right. Meteorological sensibility is moderate; two or three days before bad weather he is restless. He is credulous; was made to see a bottle of black wine under a white paper. At 9 years of age was given to masturbation. The dynamometer gave 46 for the left hand, 53 for right. Motility: gait awkard; speech stammering; writing good; knee jerk exaggerated; had a simian agility since infancy. He walks often without consciousness of where he goes; this is one form of propulsive epilepsy; at certain mon ents there comes to him a desire to destroy everything, and often he does it. He does not believe in any religion. He sleeps uneasily; commenced to like wine at 10; was forgetful; smoked; liked gambling; is fond of striking; knows the criminal slang. His father was 41 at the birth of S. C.; his mother 50; his father drank much, but supported the wife, and was never in jail. The mother played much at lottery; his sister was mother of thirteen sons, all healthy, except one who died, disease unknown. He was studious in his four elementary classes; said he never had difficulty in learning. He reads the *Cronaca dei Tribunali*. He does not like the present system of government; would like the republican form. In infancy he suffered with *ematuric* and neuralgia.

Les criminels, caractères physiques et psychologiques, par Dr. A. CORRE. Paris, 1889 pp. 412.

The real criminal is he who does not recognize the rights of others; he is not a simple offender, but a hypocritical one; not like the man who opposes society openly. Every great man who establishes the supremacy of his country, and under the pretext of maintaining it, in the name of public safety, commits the most detestable acts solely for his own interests and caprice, such a one is a criminal. However, admit two groups, those who are imprisoned for their misdeeds and those who are free. Does this opposition correspond to the particular aptitudes in the groups which present it? Does criminality lie in the individual or environment? If in the environment, in what measure can it be modified? The answers to these questions are based upon anthropological and statistical documents.

In regard to the brain, the author does not find anything strictly peculiar to criminals. In respect to the cranium, the following points are noted: (1) the more frequent persistence of the metopic or frontal median suture; (2) the effacement, more or less complete, of the parietal or parieto occipital sutures in a large number of criminals; (3) the

are the most simple; (4) the frequency of the Wor
he regions of the median posterior fontanel, and i
rior fontanels; (5) the development of the supercil
the defacement, or even frequent depression, of th
tuberance, the development of the mastoid apophyses
direction of the plane of occipital depression. Gen
s lower in criminals; left handedness is common; im
sitive activity; this lack of sensibility to pain and t
timents explains the want of pity and the cruelty o
rue criminal has something of the incompleteness o
a man who has remained animalized; he is an oppo
is lazy, likes wine, gambling, and debauch; in genera
he thought of death, indifferent to religion; withou
tremely vain. Intelligence does not develop his altru
hough very cunning, the criminal is inferior in intel
are criminals of genius; some are honored by th
egotistical monsters; if possessed with power, the
nder other names; the slang of the criminal is rich i
enness, wine, and money; educated men among crim
n the majority the notion of the act is so persistent a
sure to take away legal responsibility. In many im
dden and irresistible; onanism and sodomy are com
s are increasing in number. The physiognomic char
general: small cranial dimensions, receding forehead
, abundance of hair, and dull eye (women criminals ar
omely ; thick lips, projecting eyes, and large jaws
stics, while common, are by no means absolute. A
s considered of sound mind, who does things th
s inexplicable or out of proportion to his appetites, i
rather as insane than criminal. In delicate and dis
with most experience and intelligence should decide
Among the cases of doubtful criminality are giddy
ical women with hereditary taint, who, commencin
es, go into crime. The legislative idea of premedita
aced by that of the degree of intensity or duration o
Criminals from sudden passion are more excusabl
commit crime under the influence of drunkenness b
horphine, or hashish; for the latter, although far les
r deeds, know that these drugs expose them to suc
t grade of criminals are so by profession, who are know
rately rebellious against society. The last class ar
men, who, by the cloak of wealth, power, position o
iety solely for their own disordered appetites.
rimi al type in the sense of anthropological unification
es that the cerebral inferiority of the criminal has it
of arrest of development in childhood. Admitting

subordination to the acts of the organization, and the want of liberty, society should not punish the less, as it is her only way to maintain herself; but should keep within the strict limits of self-defense. The death penalty is a relic of barbarism; the ideal is not repression, pain for pain. A wise code should reprimand by bettering, not by destroying; it should diminish the intensity of the solicitations to crime; it should remember that society is in a great measure the cause of criminality. The author, while stating his own views without reserve, shows a broad spirit towards the views of others; on the whole he is not extreme, but takes a medium course.

Le Crime en Pays Créoles. Dr. A. Corre. Paris, 1889. pp. 314.

This book is a sketch in criminal ethnography. It is a natural history of crime; but of distinct races under metropolitan assimilation. The author gives a general insight into the evolution of delinquency and crime among the Creoles inhabiting Martinique, Guadeloupe and Réunion in the Indian Ocean. These contain in all 450,000 inhabitants, of whom one-tenth is white. There are the black Creole as distinguished from the black Africans; the white Creoles and the white Europeans, and a mongrel race coming from the union of these.

Criminality here is influenced rather by the social conditions than by racial factors. In the time of slavery the negro, a passive and almost negative being, committed less crime than the white man. At the time of emancipation the blacks gave themselves to abominable acts; the white population was so reduced as to have scarcely any influence on crime. The colored population increased in power as the field of its appetites enlarged. Criminality increased proportionally to the population, however. If social development is a cause of crime, it is also a corrector and reducer of dangerous impulses through the collective education on which it reposes. Emancipation certainly ameliorated the negro. But assimilation makes the number of crimes formidable, for in a rapid evolution the weak and impotent, remaining behind, furnish the largest number of criminals. The negro and white man have distinct physical organizations, and as a result distinct social aptitudes. The most advanced social organization is not comprehended by the negro; extreme liberty without the control of the white man brings him back almost to the ancestral savagery. The negro kills with little or no premeditation; is sure to obey the sexual appetite; is seldom guilty of infanticide or any atrocious suppression of descendants. The negro is very tolerant, has few needs which oblige him to struggle; is contented, if he can be lazy.

The Hindoos are isolated from the Creoles, but not in castes; their offenses show a certain degenerative refinement in motive or execution; they will not submit to tyranny of masters; debauch, adultery, and jealous rivalries involve them in their worst offenses; they learn skill and foresight, and are almost professionals in crime. Creolean and

ities conserve their own ethnic and sociological char-
author concludes this study in criminal ethnography
iled enumeration of measurements and observations to
anthropological study (properly speaking) of colonial

logische Fälle. Ein Beitrag zur Kenntniss der Uebergangszustände
n und Irresinn, von Dr. AUG. FOREL. Professor der Psychiatrie
1889.

position, determinism, based upon evolutionism is be-
ominent in contemporary philosophy. Contradictions
leas and legal punishment will vanish so soon as pun-
e correction of the prisoner and the protection of soci-
expiation of the deed.

known to have a lawless disposition should be taken
hey can do injury to society, and, on the other hand,
ns should be psychologically studied, as to when and
ould be given freedom, instead of holding them a cer-
ne, according to the nature of the deed. The time is
e treatment of criminals will belong in part to psychi-
t to psychology. A normal psychical state is an ade-
n of the mind to the forces in the outer world. A nor-
othing else than an adequate reaction of the mind. A
n inadequate reaction. The writer cites two cases, giv-
at some length; one exhibits a high degree of weak-
h an inborn ethical defect, weak judgment, liable to
ts. In this case the person was found guilty of kid-
and sentenced to ten months in the workhouse. The
hat of a person shooting his friend without warning,
g himself; a case of hereditary insanity, of deep ethical
sexual feeling, hysterical fanaticism, etc. There are
sitions marked by constitutional and chronic disturb-
ental equilibrium; the disease can appear as almost
rganism, merely as an individual peculiarity, and in-
Thus there are no sharp limits between the inadequate
riminal and that of a normal man, just as there are
dily anomalies and health in general. Moral training,
principles are the best means for forming a habit of
lure.

reventive Principles, with special reference to Europe and America.
LACK, Secretary of the Howard Association. London, 1889. pp.

ng the variety of opinion among those of long experi-
ge of criminals, there is a preponderance of experience
ions. It is the special design of this book to aid in
e converging lines and approximate conclusions. The
nous upholder of the necessity for the effectual separa-

tion of imprisoned criminals, as opposed to the system of classification and association of criminals. The author appeals to the penal experiences of different nations: France, almost desparing in legislation, had the Récidivist Law for the extension of penal deportation; also the number of imprisonments increased threefold in half a century, from 41,000 in 1836 to 127,000 in 1888; and the "récidivists" increased from 31 to 48 per cent in the more serious offenses, and from 28 to 43 per cent in the minor ones. In the United States there has been a steady increase of crime to population, and a shocking development of corruption in the county jails. In Italy we find almost the worst predatory and homicidal classes in gangs of contaminating villainy among the prison population. In Germany the prisons are largely schools of crime. In Australia the system is condemned on all sides; it led to conspiracies, insubordination, vices, increase of expenses, contamination, and no possibility of reforming the criminal. In England, with its cellular local jails, and in Belgium and Holland, with similar central prisons where separation is secured or approximated to, we find the criminals most effectively held in check. In this system there should be added a rearrangement of sentences; that is, short, but sharp ones; more really penal, but more mercifully deterrent and reformatory. But another purpose of this book is, to show that the efficacy of prisons in the repression of crime is immensely exaggerated, in comparison with other methods of reformation.

As to legislation, a reasonable cumulation of penalties is desirable. The element of certainty is very important. Judiciously administered substitutes for imprisonment, including conditional liberty or probation, fines and moderate corporal punishments, are merciful and economical alternatives for prolonged incarceration. These views are held by the majority of penologists. As to preventive influences, too little attention is given to the restorative agencies of religion and morality (including, under the latter head, the wise encouragement of temperance, chastity, thrift), systems of education and training children to a self-supporting industry, the influence of piety, fostered mainly by denominational schools, where their faith is kept from being needlessly assailed—all these factors are too much neglected. It is generally admitted that the prevention of offenses and the development of society is forwarded by reverence for law and order, and a wise use of fear and hope, reward and penalty. Now it is preëminently in the gospel that we find these principles most authoritatively embodied and exemplified.

Prison Statistics of the United States for 1888. By ROLAND P. FALKNER, PH. D. Philadelphia, 1889; pp. 34.

This brochure presents many interesting facts. There is a homogeneous convict population in our prisons. The county jails and houses of correction have a continual change in their population, owing to

. The percentage of colored prisoners is much greater
e colored population. As to age, the prisoners are as a
ne of life; the higher age classes are less represented
eral population. The foreign element furnish a larger
he native born, but they stand relatively lower in the
han in the less serious ones. The British-American
a bad showing; in Michigan, 38.14 per cent. of the
opulation; and in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont
per cent of it. The Germans have the same ratio in
tive born. Interstate emigration is common, so that
ther States are represented more strongly than in the
erally. The unmarried show relatively a large percent-
n the Western States. Manufacturing, mechanical, and
ions show a large percentage of crime. Those having
large in number. The percentage of Catholics is quite
nostly by nationality and economic condition. The
a very small percentage relatively. Crimes against
largest percentage in Maine, Michigan, Nevada, and
y it should be so high in Connecticut, New Jersey, and
na is not clear. In the South there is a large percent-
ainst the person.

ent du service des signalements anthropométriques, par A. BERTILLION
hives de l'anthropologie criminelle. 1888. pp. 19.

ort addressed to the director of penitentiary administra-
The repertory of anthropometrical descriptions com-
ary, 1883, had reached the number of 60,000 in Novem-
has brought about the detection of about 1,500 recidi-
in the jail-books under false names. The author de-
ner of obtaining uniformity in results, the classification
ts, and the distinctive characters of recidivists under a
ing some curious examples of detection. It seems to us
rect step toward the detection and subsequent control
ult class of criminals.

of Youthful Criminals, by HAMILTON D. WEY, M. D. Reprint of
efore the National Prison Association at Boston, July 18, 1888.

ning and athleticism are to be sharply distinguished.
tion should precede mental; it aids the slow and irregu-
of the criminal, gradually giving him better control of
nd is quickened along with such training. Bathing and
juncts to physical training. Physical education should
n a three-fold line—physical development, muscular
nd structural enlargement. Let the physical man be
the highest attainable degree; the brain coincidently
, and the mind will afford a basis for the principles of

morality. The brochure is valuable in giving many practical details from the more advanced point of view of criminologists.

Should Inebriates be Punished by Death for Crime? By T. D. CROTHERS, M. D., Superintendent of Walnut Lodge, of Hartford, Conn.

Although this is only a leaflet of eight pages, it contains many facts and practical ideas. Criminals are found who are not deceitful, but desperately wicked. The inebriate is defective and diseased—the death penalty for inebriates is opposed to all teachings of science and experience. Ten per cent of the estimated half million inebriates in the United States are yearly convicted of crime; 2 per cent commit capital crime, and 1 per cent of this number, or about one hundred persons, are executed every year. Inebriacy is not a voluntary condition within the control of the person. In one thousand cases confined on Blackwell's Island, nine hundred and thirty five had been returned for the same offense from one to twenty eight times. The inebriate murderers are subject to delusions, morbid impulses, epileptic explosions, sometimes alcoholic somnambulism; the death penalty has no horrors for them; the first sentence causes others. Inebriate murderers should have a private trial, should be confined for the rest of their life in a military workhouse hospital.

Du Dépeçage Criminel. A. LACASSAGNE. Archives de l'Anthropologie Criminelle. Tome troisième, 1888.

The author is one of the most distinguished medical legalists in France. "Depeçage" (Δι-τέμνω, I cut through) is the act of cutting a body into more or less equal portions. Criminal "dépeçage" is the act of cutting the human body into an indefinite number of fragments for the purpose of disposing of the victim and of rendering his identification more difficult. Sometimes the head, the arms, the limbs, and trunk are separated; or they may be reduced to pieces. This method of the assassins has become the style; it is by imitation, made contagious in feeble and hesitating individuals through detailed descriptions by the press. They seek the methods that will make the greatest difficulties for justice. In inquests, care must be taken not to suggest to the guilty machiavelian plans; since their minds are very simple, and too impulsive to carry out combinations. The magistrate or physician should try to think as they do, and always be making the most simple hypothesis.

The advancement made in determining identity has caused the criminals to take more precautions. Thus an assassin says that if he killed anyone, he would strike him on the head, then he would skin him as a calf, cut off his ears and nose, and take out his eyes so that he could not be recognized, and cut his body into pieces and scatter it here and there. This form of bestiality is the most genuine mark of the destructive instinct. This is not in obedience to the laws of atavism. But it is because these criminals are as they are that we call them an

out protest. He will ask himself how he came to sign such a paper; an investigation might be embarrassing to the holder of the check. Although the courts will seldom be called upon to consider crimes committed by somnambules or upon somnambules, yet there is danger in another direction, that is in the injurious effects of ill-advised hypnotizations by persons who are not physicians. We can track a "showman magnetizer" by the persons he succeeded with, who become nervous and irritable; some fall into deep sleep out of which it is difficult to bring them; they are unfitted for duties of daily life. Others, and they are the majority, have convulsions resembling the crises of confirmed hysteria. Hypnotism should be confined to the medical profession. The expert in court has to inquire if the subject has an affection capable of coming from ill-advised hypnotism. He ought not to go beyond the formula: "The individual can (or can not) be put into the hypnotic state."

Les Suggestions Criminelles, Leçons professées à la Faculté de Nancy, par M. le Professeur BERNHEIM. Revue de l'Hypnotisme, 1 er Mars, 1890.

This article, written by the leader of the Nancy school, brings out clearly the main point of difference between the two schools. Free will and responsibility are problems that present themselves to us. We are all suggestible in a certain measure; our reason leaves us sometimes; evil thoughts creep into our imagination out of our control; the thought tends to become an act. To what degree can we resist this tendency? Can it not impose upon us the law of ideo-motor or ideo-dynamic automatism, which transforms the idea into action? Can crimes be committed by suggestion? The Nancy school replies affirmatively. Liébeault, Liégeois, Beaunis, and Bernheim say that certain somnambulists can, under the influence of suggestion either during sleep or after wakening, execute with docility what they have been ordered. Numerous experiments should carry conviction.

The Paris school, with Charcot its eminent head, Brouardel, and Gilles de la Tourette replies in the negative. It is said that the crimes we cause to be committed are those of the laboratory; that if we give to a man a paper knife with which to kill his neighbor, he knows that the knife is harmless; his confidence in us renders him obedient to the suggestion. This is true in certain cases; the somnambulist knows it is a representation, and plays the comedy which we desire him to play. It is sometimes so in natural dreams; we know that we dream; we dream passively; we endure the most terrifying things without feeling any emotion; the heart-beat and respiration are not accelerated; we are indifferent to the drama in which we are actors; the individual is as if he had to do with another of his selves; the conscious being is awake by the side of the new being, the subconscious. The feeling of our identity is stronger than that of the hallucination, which strikes our sensation without reaching the moral foundation of our being. The same is true of certain hypnotized persons. I say to the subject, "The

the conformitor (used by hatters) was employed in obtaining the anterior-posterior and bilateral diameters with the aid of Broca's compass. The form of the cranium is an important element in the diagnosis of insanity. The majority of cases show a striking asymmetry; there is a marked predominance in the lateral posterior regions. In the maniacs the anterior-posterior diameter is greater than the average. In cases of dementia there is a twisting movement of the head, with an exaggerated development of the parietal eminences. There is always a predominance of the frontal lobes in the general paralytics. In idiots and cretins the lines which form the contour of the head are very irregular; there is also an exaggerated development of the occipital protuberance. The author is consulting physician and director of the Argentine Medical Society for nervous diseases. It is interesting to hear what an authority from South America says.

La Contagion du Meurtre, étude anthropologique criminelle. Le Dr. PAUL AUBRY. Paris, 1888. pp. 181.

The phenomenon of morbid psychology, which the author considers, is a combination of suggestion, imitation, heredity, and contagion. Contagion may arise from family influence, as in the case of the child reared in crime, who sees his parents profit from it, or it may come from contact with prisoners. If the child goes to the house of correction, the case is no better, as contagion has a hold on him. A good man rarely comes from a criminal family, but a bad man frequently comes from a good family. Reformation from prison life is a myth. Lacenaire, a most celebrated criminal himself, says when a young man enters prison and hears of the grand exploits of the others he regrets that he has not been a greater criminal himself. Contagion comes from public executions; those who quit the prison assemble at public executions to see the blood, which for them has special attraction. Out of 177 persons condemned to death only three had not been present at other executions. The indirect contagion of the press is an established fact. In 1885, in Geneva, Switzerland, a woman killed her four children, then tried to commit suicide; in her autobiography were these words, "As a woman did it, which was in the newspaper." Tropman, a celebrated criminal, confessed that the cause of his demoralization was the reading of novels, by which he developed a strong passion for heroes of the prison. If such reading influences a sound mind, its effect on the weak minded and insane is still worse. The reading of the details of crime first produces repulsion, then indifference; soon crime is looked upon with complacency, and after this overt acts may follow with less difficulty.

There is the contagion to vitriolize or to use the revolver. A woman wishes simply to disfigure some enemy; she has read in the paper how another woman accomplished this and was acquitted with the congratulations of the jury and with public applause, how everyone talked

ner picture was in the paper; she finds vitriolizing con-
tates her model. Those who use the pistol are not so
the vitriolizers, though the results may be more fatal,
nce the royal and aristocratic mode of disposing of per-
to the advancement of chemical science it is now com-
quent, and if resorted to it is generally by the igno-
icide the mother was accustomed to place her hand over
ose of the infant, but the newspapers showed the dan-
od; so at present the child is strangled under a pillow
h leaves no traces. Mutilation and incineration often
r. It is natural to assassins to cut a body into pieces,
dispose of it.

endemic murder are frequent in great social disorders,
h Revolution and the Paris Commune; the sight of
is contagious, excitement follows, then concentration
ch demands victims. War is a neurosis in which peo-
s; it is a contagion that affects all minds, and acute in
omicidal insanity. Violation followed by murder is a
A band of young men, after more or less drinking,
ated route a woman, it matters not whether old or
altreat and violate her; their wantonness being ap-
es into homicidal furor; they urge one another on; they
ir victim brutally, but make her suffer.

ter giving numerous illustrations, makes the following
ions: The idea of murder is essentially contagious; in
ifested two factors are necessary: (1) Heredity or de-
lucation, by which is understood the action of exam-
tion of crime, etc. The prophylaxy of murder rests:
zation of customs; (2) in the regulation of the accounts
y the press; (3) in a more logical severity in the courts;
ral and individual hygiene.

the Criminal, a sermon by FREDERICK H. WINES. Springfield, Ill., 1888. pp. 22.

as more than usual value, not only for the ideas it con-
n facts and the confidence that may be put in them,
writer is the one who gathered the criminal statistics
f 1880. The majority of people take an optimistic or
of crime according to their temperament, and either
ng can be done to stay the rising tide of crime; or else
one that can or ought to be. In either case they sup-
a matter for the government to deal with, and that
have no call to waste any of their time in considering
t know how many prisons there are in our country, nor
to the community. At the time of our last census, in
risons there were nearly 60,000 prisoners, and in addi-

tion 11,000 inmates of juvenile reformatories, who are virtually prisoners. Nearly 10,000 were sentenced for life, or for terms exceeding five years; they are a small fraction, and aptly compared to prisoners of war. The cost of maintaining our prisons, which is estimated at $15,000,000 a year, is but a small portion of the cost of defending property and life. To this must be added another $15,000,000 annually for keeping up our police departments. Then we have to maintain the ponderous and expensive system of courts. What proportion of this expense is criminal is difficult to say; but what those courts, with all their officers and employés, cost us is beyond computation. Nor can the cost of the successful depredations of criminals be reckoned. We know that many individuals live by crime. Crime has its capitalists, its officers, and even legal advisers. The worst of all is, that crime is increasing in this country out of proportion to the growth of population. An examination of the reports from State prisons shows that at the present time there are over one third more convictions for high crimes in proportion to the population than there were twenty years ago.

What is the real end sought in establishing a prison? Some say: to punish crime; some, to protect society; some, to deter others from committing crime; some, to reform the criminal. There is an element of truth in each of those answers. There is a weak sentiment in society, that punishment has no place in the criminal code. We must not oppose administering justice in the spirit of retaliation in such a way as to impress others that we do not recognize the essential evil desert of wrongdoing. At the same time, it must be admitted that the impossibility of measuring guilt in specific criminal acts, and the failure of all attempts to overcome evil with evil, have gradually changed the current of human thought, so that retaliation is not any longer the basis of an enlightened criminal code. As to protection, society has the same right as any individual in it. Fear has its legitimate use as a motive to human action. He who can not be made to fear the consequences of evildoing, is wrongly constituted, possibly insane, certainly void of conscience. Yet the deterrent influence of punishment upon those who experience it is greatly exaggerated. There is in human nature a propensity to self destruction, or reckless disregard of consequences that impels men to run terrible risks to gratify passions, particularly those which are unlawful and injurious. No degree of severity will ever put an end to crime. The prison protects as long as the criminal is there; in a sense, it is a substitute for death and for banishment; but here the only sure protection is imprisonment for life; but no government will ever authorize its indiscriminate application to all grades of offenders, no matter how incorrigible they may be. There are many, even among the officers of prisons, who oppose imprisonment for life of any man, however heinous his crime, on the ground that it deprives him of hope and reduces him to a condition resembling a living death. Further, we have no right to commit anyone to a prison in which the discipline is

reformatory. The worst man in liberty may fall under
s and be changed; but to put him where influences are
not be justified, especially where the sentence is for life.
atory system the coöperation of the prisoner must be
ngest sentiment in his breast is the hope of release, and
ite sentence makes the best use of this sentiment. The
l be told that the date of his liberation depends upon
e experienced prison officer is the one to decide this.
here are no greater than in the care of the insane. The
ible should be put where they can do no harm as violators
eachers or examples to the young. Methods for the re-
revention of crime should be Christian and scientific.

hie Pénale, par. G. TARDE. Lyon et Paris, 1890. pp. 566.

s an examination of the ideas of the modern school of
opology. It is also an exposition of personal views.
st attempts to reconcile moral responsibility with de-
then gives an explanation of society from the side of
He follows a general point of view, which he has ap-
ferent aspects of society in his recent book on the laws
He finally indicates some legislative or penitentiary re-
tical conclusion from his theoretical premises.

bility of one person towards another supposes the union
ns: (1) a certain degree of social similitude between the
2) that the first person, on account of the accusation,
appear to rest identical with himself. Now, penal re-
less than civil, has the nature of a debt, that is, to
faction judged useful to the person or group of persons
ight to invoke it. Penal utilitarianism in this sense is
orld. This is no system of a metaphysician; responsi-
ys been held thus by the popular instinct. Founded
freedom, this notion of responsibility does not accord
y of penal law, and if it seems to agree with actual leg-
s to create an abyss between such legislation and the
deterministic science requires. But founded upon iden-
nde, it explains the past, and permits a connection of
h the future, and old prejudices with new principles.

lterations of the personality are not of an even tenor
nt ages of life or in different individuals. These differ-
considered in fixing the delays to criminal prescrip-
ore or less as I was yesterday, the day before, or ten
certain bursts of passion I leave myself a great deal;
ty goes and comes subject to periodic fluctuations. But
this undulation, which no formula can fix, one perceives
ral fact, that after being rapidly transformed in infancy

and youth, the person stops, ossifies, and from this time modifies itself but little. It is not true then that we vary the same with age at every period of life. The presumption, which in part makes the delay in criminal procedure the same for young men as for mature men, is contradicted by facts.

Our theory of responsibility applies as well to civil as to criminal matters. Now, civil responsibility has rested outside of the polemics sustained over the question of free will. This signifies that everybody understands that it rests on some other foundation than that of this mysterious faculty.

It is true according to the moralists and the jurists that a contract does not bind him who has subscribed to it, if he has not freely consented. But the liberty here, as in all matters of obligations, is not free will, that inherent quality of having been able not to have determined as one has done; but it is absence of exterior constraint, the quality inherent in the act, of being conformed to the will of its author. The signer of a check will talk in vain if, on signing it, he gives away to an irresistible passion for a woman, or for gambling; he is gallant, he is a gambler; it is his character. But would it not be otherwise, if on signing, he had given away to a motive of a nature wholly exceptional in his life; if, for example, having had up to this time a horror for gambling, he had contracted this debt to gamble. Why this difference? Because the question is, if he was himself in signing it.

The psychological conditions of personal identity are also those of social similitude. The individuality of the person is explained by that of the state. The state is to the nation what the eye is to the brain. Identity is made and unmade; it has its degrees. Royal justice does not take its model from the domestic tribunals of the previous era, but rather from war like proceedings; evil doers are everywhere treated as enemies. Penalty is expiatory; there is an original transition of collective responsibility to individual. The theory of irresponsibility is treated under the heads of insanity, drunkenness, hypnotism, senility, moral conversion, and sovereignty. The criminal is not insane, nor is he a savage reappearing among us, but he is in part the work of his own crime, and of criminal justice.

The repetition and even the regular variation of statistics implies the nonexistence or the nonuse of free will. Socially, statistics show that man imitates much more than he innovates. Men imitate the more they are alike. The superior is more imitated than the inferior; the propagation is always downward in all orders of facts: languages, dogmas, ideas, needs. In the past, the great source of imitation was aristocracy; now it is money. This principle applies to crime. Vices were propagated from nobles to people, such as drunkenness, poisoning, murder by command. At present they go from the city to the country. The action of penalties on criminality is similar to that of prices upon consumption. The consumption of an article does not

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du Droit Pénal, par. AD. FRANCK. Paris, 1888. pp. 174.

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the systems of others, the author lays down the following: The real foundation of the right to punish is the incontestable, inalienable, and absolute right of self-preservation. Society can exercise this in only two ways, by constraint and repression; the former by those means without which the State could not exist, as military service; the latter, in preventing acts which threaten the State's security, as the breaking of particular municipal laws. Intimidation is a high form of repression, which in its turn may be necessary to self-preservation. On the principle of expiation there is no relation between chastisement and fault, because we do not know what kind of suffering is the natural expiation of a determined fault. A law founded on such a principle is necessarily arbitrary, and is involved in the ways of cruelty and torture by the necessity of varying the punishment according to the degree of perversity that the same crime has been committed. Punishment should not concern the reparation of the damage or the needs of defense; it will be sufficient, if the fear inspired by the crime is annulled by the certainty of repression, and if social safety is not involved. Thus penal law can keep pace with civilization and become humane in proportion as society itself becomes humane. Rigor should never be considered as eternal and immutable. If education increases, if customs become more polished, and honor more common, the prison itself can give place to the moral suffering of shame or to a loss of a part of our civil and political laws, and the deprivation of good and fortune will be more severely felt than ever. Such a penal law is the only one in accord with the liberty of the individual, the conscience, and the inviolability of the home. This could not be on the theory of expiation, for in this case any infraction of a moral law could not go unpunished; the more liberty the more responsibility; this is the inquisition and slavery; the question could be reëstablished, for it is a duty to search out the evil wherever it is in order to punish it, and if you risk making the innocent suffer, you have the satisfaction of obeying an absolute principle, an inflexible rule; the right of grace is not explained by divine right, the rulers being considered an image of God on the earth, are participants of His omnipotence; they provide grace not to repair the errors of justice, but to do an act of authority. But on the principle of conservation and of reparation, society in punishing the rebellions who outrage its laws, having no other purpose than to defend itself, can extinguish in the heart of its conquered enemy the passions, which are the source of this enmity; the reformation of the rebellions, however, is not so much accomplished by the softening of his punishment as by the amelioration of his sentiments and morals through education, and the introduction of rigid habits into his life.

As to what acts should be penally punished, the common answer is: those that are an infraction of penal law. This is a vicious creed and has little to do with the nature of the acts themselves. Those who

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to the ideas that underlie the moral order and justice.
should not go beyond the purpose of penal justice or
ts of society. (2) It should be personal and not jointly
n the guilty and innocent. (3) It should be proportion-
the gravity of the crime, but also to the nature of the
there should be as much analogy as possible between
her. This analogy should be internal, moral, and not
l. For instance, the violator of the sanctity of his
be deprived of the care of his children, who should be
e of the outraged wife. The crimes of the press should
d in the same manner as the lower crimes of theft or
s, a less number of months of imprisonment. The usual
s in depriving the guilty of the rights they have vio-

concludes with the question of the death penalty: All
ial faculties which the individual uses against society,
it, suppress, or suspend if it is necessary; but can this
king of life itself? Is the death penalty a legitimate
ssion and reparation? Rousseau says that man is not
is own life; he has no right to dispose of it—not free to
n he pleases. Life is absolutely inviolable; neither the
society has the right to take it away by a stroke.

the death penalty is in the codes of all nations is on a
aying that slavery, the right of primogeniture, the privi-
te., exist among all nations. It is true if society could
ly by the death penalty, it would have a perfectly legiti-
o so. It is not necessary that the whole of society be
ould suffice if the life of particular ones were menaced
f indulgence, for in the social order personal right of
e hands of society, and the right of defense or repres-
d by intimidation. The life of man is not more or other-
than liberty. The liberty that becomes aggressive can
the life of a guilty man, when it has become a danger
e innocent, can be sacrificed. But is this sacrifice nec-
ful, can it be accomplished without danger to the inno-
, without danger of committing the crime which it wishes

It is necessary to remark first, that it is less violence than certainty of repression that influences the criminals. In times of anarchy, when the means of escaping the rigor of justice were numerous and easy, the penalty had a reason for its existence, but to-day it has little effect upon the hardened criminal. "It is a bad quarter of an hour to pass," said Cartouche in speaking of his approaching execution. There are criminals condemned to hard labor who have purposely dipped their hands in blood, who have assassinated their keepers or companions in order to mount the scaffold. The scaffold does not hinder those who kill by vengeance, jealousy, or hatred, because all these passions defy death, and make the position of the one to be executed an object of admiration rather than horror. The scaffold is not necessary to arrest criminals of another order, for imprisonment for life or cellular imprisonment suffices to effect their imagination. A savant criminologist has made this observation, that among all those condemned to death whom he had visited, all had been present at several executions. Monsieur Lucas has shown that in 1826 eight innocent persons were condemned to death. The irreparable death penalty can not be applied without danger to the innocent. The death penalty instead of being an example is a corruption; it offers the public the details of executions, which harden the feelings. It leads to murder by the law of imitation.

Handbuch des Gefängnisswesens, herausgegeben durch Dr. F. von Holtzendorff und Dr. E. von Jagemann. Hamburg, 1888. 2 vols. pp. 511; pp. 543.

These two volumes give a systematic, legal, historical, and scientific presentation of prison systems, crime, and penalty in most countries in the world, taking up in detail all directly allied subjects, which are treated by different specialists. No better idea can be given of the thoroughness and comprehensiveness of the work than by simply enumerating the headings of some of the main chapters: Essence, relation, and general literature of prison science; criminal psychology in its relation to prison systems; anthropology and pathology of criminals; criminal statistics and their sources; history and conditions of prison reform in all countries; the legal principles of penality; prison architecture, its history and principles; prison organization and administration; prison discipline and individualization; superintendence and education; prison hygiene and care of the sick; prison labor; special institutions; police, custodial, and work houses; criminal-insane and invalid prisons; historical development and present condition of preventive institutions; prison finance; morbidity; mortality; morality; oscillation of criminality and recidivation.

Les Habitués des Prisons de Paris, par Dr Emile Laurent. Préface de Dr. A. Lacassagne, Lyon. Paris, 1890. pp. 616.

Man has need of sensations; he loves to be moved. This love of criminal cases replaces the infatuation of the Middle Ages for contests. Man is more realistic, and, like a child, loves the history of the brigands,

ich excite at once the sense and the heart. It is not the
nhealthy curiosity; there is a feeling of the solidarity
of the act; its monstrosity strikes us so much the more at
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nger to each one of us. The petty thief is of little in-
he great criminal, by the atrocity of his acts, the num-
tims, and his complicated maneuvers, appears to arise
r. It seems there are forces lost there, and each one
which has been able to misguide those forces. The so-
asks itself, On what side is the responsibility?
criminal? The Italian school says he is a prehistoric
sent civilization. Lombroso advances the doctrine that
nal can be nothing more than an epileptic; criminality is
ut the individual factor in the criminal is less important
; if the former predominates, and the pathological side
point that it becomes manifest, we have an insane man
inal. It is the volition accompanying the act, and not the
h makes the crime. Man is predisposed to insanity or
s, but it is society which makes and prepares the criminals.
a larger number of physical and moral anomalies or
ood men. Yet the same anomalies are found among the
hows that these signs are not sufficient to characterize
These anomalies also can come from a defective social con-
iminal, abnormal from the point of view of disease, is
he who shows physical and moral symptoms of a disease
centers is without responsibility. The moral sense has
alization; it is an effect of adaptation and of life in the
. The social strata are not to be distinguished by posi-
instruction, but by manifestations of cerebral existence,
l, and occipital. The last are the most numerous; they
of instincts; the frontals are the most intelligent; in the
m are especially individuals of activity, character, ir-
categories of criminals correspond to this division: (1)
hought, or insane criminals; (2) criminals by impulsion;
f instinct, or the real criminal.
t society so leads him that the excuse has come to be
inal is unfortunate. The criminals are especially the
at is, they belong principally to the occipital group.
hysical and moral degeneracy are not a resurrection of
deviation from the normal type of man. At present
s, the prison corrupts, and society has the criminals it
h is the influence of society that we can distinguish the
city criminal.
work describes mainly that type which is the last stage
generacy. The majority of Parisian criminals are the
egular habit of work. Every individual from 18 to 25

who does not work should be considered dangerous and should be sent into a colonial army. Parisian criminality is more mild and civilized, but more crafty. What it has lost in ferocity it has gained in baseness and cowardice.

The following are some of the practical conclusions from the study and the prison experience of the author: As regards heredity, alcoholism takes first place as an influence; then come insanity and neurosis, and then tuberculosis. The criminal by occasion falls again much less frequently than the criminal by accident. A term in prison suffices ordinarily to render him more honest or wiser. The beggars and vagabonds in prison are not all criminals; they are the feeble, those disarmed for life; they should not live in the same part of the prison with habitual criminals, for many of them leave prison having become criminals. A schema of crime would be a triangle, two sides of which are bad habit and want of moral sense, converging into degeneracy; the two other extremities are united by the base line, alcohol. Prisons are inhabited in great part by sons whose parents were alcoholic and degenerate.

The distinction of epileptics among the insane who are not themselves insane is a sophism without any practical application. To assimilate (Lombroso) the epileptic to the morally insane is going too far. The morally insane are invariably perverse and wicked; they do not respond to a good sentiment; but epileptics at times are capable of most generous acts. Epileptics should be separated from other prisoners and treated medically. The hysterical prisoners should be treated like the epileptics, neither of whom should be kept in cells, for such confinement tends to bring on attacks. As to alcohol, a sober criminal is a rarity; while every alcoholic is not a criminal (often due to the care of friends), he can become one; for alcohol paralyzes the cerebral functions, annihilates the will, then the field is freely open to anger, impulsiveness and bad instincts. Many criminals prefer to live on a piece of bread, sleep under the bridges, and pass part of their life in prison rather than work a few hours daily. Lacenaire said to the judge: "I have always been lazy; to work is an effort. I am incapable of it. If it is necessary to work, I do not care to live. I prefer to be condemned to death." Prisoners should be classified according to the nature of their crimes. The director, the physician, and chaplain should do this. While religious beliefs do not exist among Parisian criminals, yet the priest renders great service in the prison; he knows the heart and by his sympathetic words he can comfort the most miserable. The physician should be the friend and student of the criminal as he is of the insane; should know how to distinguish the alcoholic, epileptic, insane, the vagabond, and morally insane. The prison may remain a prison and yet be transformed through the results of criminal anthropology. Prisons are inextinguishable mines for material for investigations in this science.

ance Criminelle, par HENRI JOLY. Paris, 1889. pp. 431.

mer does not have the whole universe at his disposition; e study of a little part of it will give the laws appli- hole. Thus it may be with the study of French criminal- nals and the reviews describe the fluctuations of crime, are these, but the question arises, "What does it all This, our author says, is the question he has sought to

e forces that act in crime? What is the nature of these answer does not appear doubtful; if foreigners take the ch laborers; if these foreigners succumb more easily than ve done under the eyes of their guardians and the guides ; if the half of France is to fill up the vacuum in the sed by the decrease of births; if this displacement breaks placing a large number of the natives in a state of isola- to that of the foreign laborers; if, in addition, capital these groups, which bewilders, harms, and disorganizes nilty one is punished and receives an irreparable stain, so g prison he is practically out of society; if the increase of adolescence more precocious, and the decadence of ap- triples the criminality of the young; if newly gained riches he appetites; if the diminution of births—our great —is due only to voluntary calculation, of covetousness, or this profound alteration of family life tends to multiply e appetite for higher salaries loses sight of the necessity in engagements, and the resulting instability increases f those out of society; if riches hastily acquired cause an misery does; if inadequate instruction, which lays t, is as dangerous as ignorance; if, under all these causes, it more and more difficult to have a family; if politics bility of applying more reformatory laws, then in all these ated the nature of the forces which cause crime. Where he atavism that the Italian school imagines, or a crimi- produced by accident of birth, or a regression towards pe? It is certain, however, that crime never leaves to individual their primitive integrity. Alcoholism causes generate; the person debases those confined in it. Some rime a proof of the intensity of civilization, because it is quence of it; crime is a sign of force; it is one of the struggle for existence; the criminals are like to the se testify to the ardor of the battle; no grand it effort, no effort without rivalry, no rivalry without er without violence; that, in short, the increase of crime rogress of civilization is an accompaniment or conse- tory. But the criminal, instead of being a strong, ener- severing individual, is conspicuous for his incoherence,

feebleness, and cowardice; he does not attack the law openly; he turns it as he can, because he finds it more powerful than himself. But some transform the theory and make crime a residuum of society's labor. But may it not represent the loss of a certain quantity of force? The more a manufactory is developed the larger the product of deleterious gases. While this may be true it does not follow that an increase of crime is a sign of prosperity. An industry in which there is much loss works badly, for its course is towards bankruptcy or dissolution.

To ask what society shall do shows the immense extent of criminological science or of the importance of its relations to social science. Society can not save individuals in spite of themselves, because they are free. Those who deny liberty, admit spontaniety in each individual, whose particular mode of action conforms to his nature and to special accidents which characterize his origin. It is the same society which sows temptations for the criminal, and gives to the litterateur, artist, and genius material for their work and occasion for their success. In an army twenty captains distinguish themselves; one of these twenty, however, always has the name of saving his country. Where is the real merit? Everywhere! In those who planned the army, in the soldiers who accepted the discipline, in the twenty captains, and in the one who by reflection and energy was at their head. The same is true in corrupt surroundings, in industrial trouble, disorganization, excitation; one assassinates, one is incestuous, another is an infanticide. Where is the responsibility, where is the guilt? Everywhere! In those who had not looked after the organization of labor, in those who have furnished bad examples, in leaders, and in those who have followed. The greatest evil is the unclassing of people. Every human being has need of the reserve and sustenance of the medium which surrounds him. The family, the commune, the school, the corporation, the country, should encircle us all. Whatever breaks one of these circles and lets an individual escape makes of him an unclassified person, and almost inevitably a criminal. By the prison society permits a declassification of those whom it punishes. After the punishment, does society reclassify the individual into its ranks? Is it not society, on the contrary, which by its method of punishment achieves a type of corruption that individual feebleness or disorder had already formed in the criminal? What is the extent of the evil and what should be its remedy? The answer to these questions will be the object of a third and last volume of the author.

L'anthropologie Criminelle et ses Récents Progrès, par CESARE LOMBROSO. Paris, 1890. pp. 180.

The following work, although of a somewhat personal nature, brings out the cardinal points of difference between the Italian and French schools of criminology.

The rapid and almost precipitous march of criminal anthropology prevents new publications from being very voluminous. As it is not

ent to draw from the special reviews on this subject, a résumé of recent progress. He says: I wish to reply itics who admit the importance of this new branch of ard denys me the right to affirm a criminal type, be- t, this type in wanting in sixty out of every hundred ob- atiolet defines a type as a synthetic expression, Goethe nd general image, which we deduce from the common rences. Saint Helaire says we never see a type; it is d. Broca says human types had no real existence. stract ideal conceptions which come from a comparison es. I acquiesce in these views. There is one question: imum of useful characteristics to which a type can be question is not answered. It depends upon the riger res in a particular case. In practice two or three good l characteristics are sufficient. While Topinard ad- not willing to admit atavism in criminals, because be a continuity between man and the animals. Without Lamark, Wallace, and Buffon, and even admitting the to be at fault, the continuity would exist in human t is also curious to find those admitting atavism in ot its pathological influence. Manouvrier, on the other g pathological influence (that which explains facial catenation of the teeth of criminals), on this account de- But how is it with mental diseases (microcephalics, for hey not show pathology and atavism reunited? And neeive atavistic phenomena in man without admitting fœtal pathology?

lies in the experimental field logic is most often wrong, mmon sense is one of the greatest enemies of truth. l work with the telescope rather than the magnifying rier accuses me of exhibiting only a few criminal mon- re there are no accidents; all phenomena are the effect onsters are often the result of exaggerated laws. Again have chosen too many examples, and have not selected s truth in this. We admit there is not one criminal special types, of thief, swindler, murderer. I have rvations of many savants who are not agreed. These asily explained, as each has his predilection for cer- and neglects others. Corre called attention to asym- t to the lemurian appendix to the jaw. I have noted dian fossa. These anomalies have been observed in the can recognize easily the anatomical characters of the specially the frontal sinuses, the voluminous zygoma orbits, facial asymmetry, pteleiforme type of the nasal an appendix of the jaws. I have given the details from y of 177 craniums of criminals in addition to the re-

sults of other authors. The anomalies of the frontal sinus were 52 per 100; for asymmetry, 13 per 100; for receding forehead, 28 per 100. These are the results of the examination of craniums alone. Our measurements on the living apply to 26,866 criminals compared with 25,447 normal persons. Opposition arises from a number of opponents, who are not cognizant of publications made in foreign languages.

Magnan disagrees with my opinion that in infancy there is a natural predisposition to crime. He says that the child passes from the vegetative life to the instinctive life. If these ideas were developed a little he will find, with Perez, in the child a precocity of anger, which causes him to strike persons, to break things, like to the savage, who becomes furious when he has killed the bison. Moreau has said that many children can not wait an instant for what they have asked for without becoming angry; children will be affectionate for a moment and right after it quite the contrary (Bourdin); they are often without pity. Broussais finds many children who delight in wounding animals and tormenting the feeble; he finds children lazy even when it has to do with their pleasures and games; their vanity makes them proud of their shoes, hats, and the least superiority.

But Magnan admits this only in case of invalid and unbalanced children. But it is just these defects which render permanent those embryonic tendencies toward crime; here resides the teratological and morbid nature of the born criminal; but when these pathological hereditary blemishes do not exist, criminal embryonic tendencies have become atrophied, as in the case of embryonic organs, for example, the thymus. I am criticised for not giving sufficient attention to moral surroundings. This is true, but my justification is that so many have occupied themselves so much with these questions that there is little use of demonstrating that the sun shines. Tarde and Colajanni deny the relation between organs and functions. Colajanni says there are organs without functions; Sergi well replies that they are simply enormities. May not such organs be a resume before being substituted for those which usage would have destroyed—like new garments replace old ones? If, according to Colajanni, the function gives rise to the organ, how would an organ arise deprived of function? Fere also denies my conclusion that the germs of moral insanity and crime are normal in the first years of man, just as in the embryo certain forms constantly meet, which in the adult are monstrosities. The reason of this is because Fere believes that humanity has been constituted only by individuals having the anti social tendencies of children. But he does not take account of savages. But Preyer shows that in the language of children there is the lagorree, disphasia, ecolalia, bradiphrasia, paraphrasia, and acataphasia of the insane and idiots. Preyer shows the atavistic mark of these anomalies; that while abnormal in the insane they are normal at a certain age in man, and he explains the teratology by embryology. It is not true to affirm that the degeneracy of the criminal excludes a

egeneracy (cretin, scrofulous) has its own special type.
ts our practical conclusions, but does not accept our
e so many criticise them. This is the usual criticism
try to trace out new furrows in the scientific world.

and Remedy, by L. GORDON RYLANDS. London, 1889. pp. 264.

has been done there is no possible contrivance in pre-
nmunity from suffering loss, therefore the principal
to get rid of crime altogether. The best means for
his result depend upon a clear idea as to the causes of
defective training or total absence of any; immoral
ad example in prison as well as out of it; drink, idle-
reditary transmission of evil tendencies. These causes
to make one give up hope. Heredity is the most diffi-
against.

crease of population, the consequent difficulty of pro-
th food, the enforced idleness coupled with hunger,
mpetition for work is multiplying, all these tend to the
and may be termed the active resisting forces. In
ber of men with varying degrees of depravity the least
re and habit yields first; and however much a system
is probable that a certain amount of dregs will always
nust be dealt with in a different way. The resistance
may be called passive. The present system of criminal
as been found to be of very little worth; certain reforms
of private endeavor have largely reduced the amount
the last thirty or forty years; these influences have
hey are capable of, and if the lessening of crime is to
ore efficient methods must be adopted.

akes vice repugnant to various men is the force of
fore measures must be taken to prevent the formation
s in youth by fostering in children habits of industry,
f control. More than half of crimes committed their
or at a early age. To cultivate habits of rectitude in
eptive minds, schools of a special character are neces-
likely to be exposed to temptation. These schools are
ent [illegible] of present, being reformatory schools
n of [illegible] Children should be boarded out
t up [illegible] and when old enough they should
trial [illegible] parents should be compelled to con
oport [illegible] of their neg
this [illegible] should prove impracti
m [illegible] giving
lishe [illegible] over thrifty and con-
But [illegible] such an alter-

In assigning penalties the object should be not retaliation, not to terrify the culprit with the mistaken desire to make him an example to others, which in reality lowers his self respect and benumbs his mental and moral faculties; but it should deal with the offender's moral nature, and should prevent contamination of the hitherto innocent by keeping apart every immoral person who has come within the scope of the law, until his discharge with reasonable certainty will be a benefit rather than an injury to the State.

If a man is quite unfit to live, life should be withdrawn from him. Society deals with criminals in self defense; if they can be made useful citizens the best of all results is obtained; if they will not work but prefer to starve, that is their lookout; if they endanger the lives of the members of society, their death is the last resource. To keep men in a separate cell at public expense is futile and a waste of public money. The present method is a failure; we should not remain contented with a bland smile and watch criminals being manufactured by society in the very establishments which are designed to eradicate them.

confound crime with sin substitute the power of man for that of God. Since society has no law valid against its inward or outward enemies, except that of its own preservation, an act that falls under the penal law may not be culpable in itself, or immoral; to be penal it must endanger the security of society as a whole.

After considering what acts are criminal or penal, and the different degrees, the author comes to the question of punishment itself—that is, the power of society over those whom it considers its enemies. Here appeal must be made to the immutable principles of the human conscience, and to the ideas that underlie the moral order and justice. (1) Punishment should not go beyond the purpose of penal justice or exceed the rights of society. (2) It should be personal and not jointly binding between the guilty and innocent. (3) It should be proportionate not only to the gravity of the crime, but also to the nature of the crime—that is, there should be as much analogy as possible between one and the other. This analogy should be internal, moral, and not merely material. For instance, the violator of the sanctity of his family should be deprived of the care of his children, who should be given to the care of the outraged wife. The crimes of the press should not be punished in the same manner as the lower crimes of theft or murder—that is, a less number of months of imprisonment. The usual analogy consists in depriving the guilty of the rights they have violated.

The author concludes with the question of the death penalty: All natural and social faculties which the individual uses against society, society can limit, suppress, or suspend if it is necessary; but can this reach to the taking of life itself? Is the death penalty a legitimate means of repression and reparation? Rousseau says that man is not the master of his own life; he has no right to dispose of it—not free to renounce it when he pleases. Life is absolutely inviolable; neither the individual nor society has the right to take it away by a stroke.

To say that the death penalty is in the codes of all nations is on a parallel with saying that slavery, the right of primogeniture, the privileges of race, etc., exist among all nations. It is true if society could defend itself only by the death penalty, it would have a perfectly legitimate right to do so. It is not necessary that the whole of society be in danger; it would suffice if the life of particular ones were menaced by an excess of indulgence, for in the social order personal right of defense is in the hands of society, and the right of defense or repression is exercised by intimidation. The life of man is not more or otherwise inviolable than liberty. The liberty that becomes aggressive can be suspended; the life of a guilty man, when it has become a danger to the life of the innocent, can be sacrificed. But is this sacrifice necessary, is it useful, can it be accomplished without danger to the innocent sometimes, without danger of committing the crime which it wishes to repress?

One of the well-known criminal organizations is the Maffia, an association of malefactors, whose home is in Sicily. As a rule, it has no secret sects, statutes, regular meetings, or organization. Its power, however, is very great; it is incarnated in the Sicilians. It is divided into two clans, the Maffia of the city and the Maffia of the country. They operate together, sustain one another and divide the booty. The members of the city Maffia steal, assassinate, seek to get possession of the large proceeds, and to hold the association in their grasp. The rustic members are bands of from ten to twenty brigands, who infest the country, causing terror everywhere. The Maffia are professional criminals, and desire to become rich by this method. They have their own code of justice, which is not social justice; their verdicts are unchangeable and prompt. A witness condemned by the Maffia is killed within twenty-four hours. They work by terror. A judge will avoid condemning a criminal, through fear of being stabbed; a witness against the criminal shares the same danger. The prefect of Palermo defines the Maffia as a latent and pernicious power in a country where corruption and reaction against authority is a heritage of the past. By the aid of this society people of every class yield to a reciprocal assistance in view of defense, plunder, gain, power, vengeance in using all the means that law, morality, and civilization detest and condemn. The rich practice it to protect their person and property.

There are classes of *Maffiosi:* the *Maffioso* of action, that is, brigand, the thief, or the assassin; the secret *Maffioso*, who gathers and distributes the news and is a silent aid for the perpetration of crimes; the *Maffioso manutenglolo*, through fear or interest, is the purveyor and receiver of stolen goods for the *Maffiosi* of action.

The *Bassa Maffia* is a lower grade of the society. Here any scamp who thinks he has courage can become a *Maffioso*; he threatens to kill some one and is honored by all. The *Alta Maffia* seeks to make a show of good manners, and at the same time to be in accord with the brave of the *Maffiosi* of low extraction.

The *Bravi*, or supreme chiefs, are sometimes elegantly clothed and wear yellow gloves. Then there are the stabbers and the thieves. They seek financial aid in enterprises of vengeance, in clandestine lotteries, in illicit profit from public works, and sometimes in blackmailing.

They all follow faithfully their unwritten code. Here are some of the principles: To keep absolute silence concerning the crimes which they witness, and to be ready to give false testimony in order to cover up traces; to give protection to the rich for money considerations; to defy public force at all times and everywhere, and always to be armed; to fight a duel for the most frivolous motives, and not to hesitate to stab treacherously; to avenge at any price injuries received, even if one is intimately related to the offender. Whoever is found wanting in any of these respects is declared *infamous*, which means that he should

t delay, even if in prison; if weapons are wanting,
in his pail. He receives also an order to give himself
owing the condemnation to be irrevocable, he strictly
illing a comrade one notifies him by drawing a cross
shooting a pistol at his house. Lombroso has seen
th by seeking mercy in being shut up alone in a prison

rascals, they have their slang; they say "sleep" in-
"eats" for war, "ruby" for eye, "product of extor-
"tic-tac" for revolver. Their principal home is in
e firm in their hatred. Lombroso tells of one, who,
he weaker one, kept his vengeance for fifteen years;
dversary was condemned to death; then he petitioned
and obtained the favor of filling the office of execu-

plete organization of criminal aristocracy is the Cam-
The Mafia is a variety of the Cammorra. A further
fia can be pursued perhaps in no better way than by
ammorra.
ion consists of a number of prisoners, or ex-convicts,
l independent groups, but under one hierarchy. The
te must prove that he is courageous and that he can
e should kill or wound anyone who would name to him
ns were wanting, he must fight with one of his future
knife. Formerly the test was a more difficult one,
ate was obliged to raise a piece of money while the
ed it with their daggers. He must submit to an ap
ve, three, and sometimes eight years; he is in service
ives him most fatiguing and perilous things to do, allow
ts once in a while, for charity's sake. After he has
n of his master by zeal and submission, a meeting is
ep'ion as a Cammorrist is deliberated upon. If re
ight against in the presence of the assembly; he takes
d daggers forming a cross, that he will be faithful to his
himself to avenge an enemy of authority; have no
th the police; never denounce thieves, but to have a
ou towards them, as towards those who expose their
After the banquet finishes the celebration.
st [illegible] offers as the distribution of "*la cam*
ess [illegible] exactions in gambling rooms,
[illegible] and newspapers, from hack-
s, [illegible] prostitutes. These last furnish the best
[illegible] "unfortunate" must give a tenth of
[illegible] food, gambling, and for sleeping on

[illegible] a comrade without permission from the

chief, but in revenge he can make away with anyone else. If there are doubts as to the fidelity of a colleague, before condemning him they send him a plate of macaroni; if he refuses to eat it (for fear of poison, perhaps) they feel certain of his guilt, and his condemnation is pronounced, and lots are drawn to indicate the apprentice who must execute it. This is done punctually, as shown by this fact. A prisoner tells the governor of a castle that a Cammorra had been established for some time, and that it was his misfortune to be one of the chiefs. One of the laws is to compel all the convicts to pay 2 cents a day. A certain convict, Razo, would not submit to this. The chiefs of the Cammorra voted unanimously to put him to death. But the lot fell to him (the chief) to strike the blow; he accepted and was to commit the crime that morning. But on reflection at the sad consequences of such a forfeit, the cause of which was only 2 cents, he restrained his arm and went out of the castle. He then begged the governor of the castle to isolate him, for, after this treachery, his comrade chiefs would kill him without pity.

Yet the Cammorra is not wholly without heart, as shown in the case of the young girl whose lover had been condemned to death for refusing to pay his contribution. She asked that her lover might be pardoned, and it was accorded to her with Olympian majesty.

GAROFALO'S IDEAS ON THE REPRESSION OF CRIME, REPRESENTING THE ITALIAN SCHOOL OF CRIMINOLOGY.

The problem of individual moral responsibility is perhaps insoluble. There should be no discord between judicial logic and social interest. From the moral point of view, individual responsibility is much lessened by bad example from infancy, traditions of family or race, bad habits that have been formed, violence of passion, temperament, etc. As responsibility lessens, so the penalty lessens, until it is reduced to a minimum, if you can prove extreme force and impulsion to crime. Now, there is scarcely a guilty man who has not *extenuating* circumstances. There is not a crime where we can not discover such circumstance. That is, the only criminals who should be inexcusable, are those for whom one has not sought out the extenuating circumstances. But the reply is, that it concerns only bad tendencies, and the free will of man can triumph over them. But how can one measure the part that comes from bad tendencies, and that which comes from free will? The progress of anthropology shows that the most culpable have almost all an abnormal psycho physical organization. If penalty depends upon the principle of moral responsibility, we should acquit some of the most ferocious assassins, as soon as their extreme natural brutality and all-powerful criminal impulsions are shown. In any case the punishment should be lessened in the measure in which the causes of the bad tendencies become evident. The more perverse and incorrigible the criminal the less should be the punishment. The public have protested against the

ittal by juries, against the indulgence of magistrates.
tals are the triumph of logic; only the triumph is at
ecurity and social morality. There is no way to avoid
nake the penal criterion depend upon *social necessity*
al responsibility of the individual. Society does not
fficiently with crime, neither as regards the victim nor
of crime. The fact that in the midst of our civilization
rsons are slaughtered each year, where one does not
money or life, is significant, and it is all the more hideous
mes more pacific and less uncertain. In all Europe
ber of murders each year from 1881 to 1887 was fifteen
he United States the proportion to population is much

s society do to prevent these evils? Little or nothing.
n tabulated, because a scale of penalties has been asked
ch *délit* a measure of suffering is designated in the
n in a building, where the prisoner, for a certain time,
d clothed at the expense of the state. After this time
prisoner becomes a free citizen, and is said to have ex-
s, or to have paid that which he owes to society. All
but rhetoric. The truth is, the criminal has paid
e state, on the contrary, which has paid his expenses,
n addition to the damages of his crime. Nor has the
d morally; there are no miracles in prison; the convict
our penitentiary system is not severe; on the other
ains are easily forgotten. He leaves prison and enters
rroundings in which he was before his condemnation,
he same temptations. In the eyes of the people, the
udicial power have the appearance of protecting the
society, rather than society against the criminal.
that fatalism is the outcome of these ideas. This is a
tion. Experience demonstrates that the individual
he same manner when under the same intellectual and
s and the same external circumstances. It is foolish to
r the criminal by imprisonment or by any other mode
f, after release, he is allowed to return to his former
But it is not impossible to aid the criminal if he is put
ons, where he sees the necessity of honest work, and
vill be more easy to him. Those are rather fatalists who
has always existed and will exist, and, therefore, con
f the evils that must always afflict society. But, it is
pur[illegible] solely the conditions in suppres
of crime. [illegible] out of the question, for the legis-
that, [illegible] solely the work of time. Why should
inorganic [illegible] contemporary society that the majority,
overeignty, should make one exception, and that, too,

where it is against the smallest, the most harmful, and most abject minority, that of the criminals? Why should the large part of humanity be put to inconvenience in changing the conditions of social existence in the exclusive interest of a mere handful of worthless individuals? Why, on the contrary, should not these few who are unadapted to civilization be eliminated?

The criminal anomaly diminishes in proportion as the provocation increases. Crime is a legitimate reaction in principle, but it is excessive, and the abnormality consists in this excess. The most rational means of repression should consist in the removal of the delinquent from the locality where the victim or his family lives, and in prohibiting his return before a certain time, and in every case not before he has paid the indemnity due to the victim or his family. A more difficult problem is the treatment of a murderer, whose motive was vengeance for a grievous wrong or insult to his family. An affront is *real* which is considered so according to the ideas of our surroundings. It is of little importance whether this environment be the whole world or only the part in which we live.

Great criminals are by nature devoid of moral sense and have very little feeling of pity. They commit murders which would be impossible without an innate and instinctive cruelty. Such are assassins. Thus all murders for a purely egotistic purpose, as desire of gain, or of some advantage or pleasure which has to do with money, sexual appetite, aspiration for power or favor are acts which prove an exceptional perversity and the most complete absence of the altruistic sentiment. In this class of crimes are those for which the motive is the appeasing of a pathological desire, as assasination accompanying violation, or of enjoyment of the sight of blood and of torn flesh.

Then murder, in all cases where the victim has done nothing to merit the hatred or anger of the murderer, belongs under the same head; so parricide for such blood vengeance occurs only in men of abnormal physical constitution. Of like nature is the murder of a benefactor, or of an inoffensive unknown person to make a parade of muscular force or skill in using arms. Another category is characterized by the manner in which the murder is executed: the torments, the length of duration of the same. These always denote an innate cruelty. Such atrocities show a total absence of the sentiment of pity, even when the intention to kill was uncertain. The code of Napoleon was right in naming everyone an assassin who has been cruel with the body of the victim.

The character of the instinctive murderer does not depend upon premeditation. The rapidity of the act has no relation to the corrigible or incorrigible nature of the agent; it is compatible with the most complete absence of pity. On the other hand, Holtzendorff, an eminent authority, holds that premeditation does not signify the exclusion of passion, which is manifested more or less immediately according to the

of the individual. Despine says that violent criminals
levoid of moral sentiment as criminals of cold blood.
who try to quarrel with a person and strike him; he
ts; and this affords an excuse for stabbing him. Such a
ssin, although the act was instantaneous and unpremedi-
e other hand, an atrocious injury, a striking injustice,
ed the life of a man, can push him to tragic vengeance;
ditation, but this is not a sign of a great criminal.

on is, then, not always an index of that extreme physical
h distinguishes the great criminals. The cruelty with
der has been committed and the absence of any grave
part of the victim are the two criterions which should
f premeditation. This is in order to distinguish the
t is the great instinctive criminals, who can be regarded
rally degenerated and perpetually unsociable. The im-
adaptation of such individuals being recognized, it is
eliminate them absolutely from society. There is only
penalty for all great criminals, except in the case of the
It is claimed that imprisonment for life will accomplish
t this is incorrect, because, first, there is the annual
asions; then there is a good number of probabilities, as
ns, etc., that can give the prisoner freedom. It is also
event that those condemned for life assassinate their
if imprisonment for life were one means of elimination,
e given the preference. For why should beings who no
part of society be preserved for life? It is hard to
by citizens, and even the families of the victims them-
be obliged to pay a tax in order to clothe and feed the
nies of society.

ath penalty has the great advantage of intimidation. It
ntimidation is the criterion of penalty in the sense of
[illegible] individuality requires for the sole
[illegible] The means of repression should
the [illegible] of each person in proportion to
[illegible] with a greater or less probability of
[illegible] life. But in the cases under consid-
[illegible] he should then be eliminated
[illegible] this; there is here no excess.
[illegible] does not affect all malefactors,
[illegible] influenced by the idea of im-
[illegible] of the death penalty extends
[illegible] tending toward a career
[illegible] what he can do or what punishment
[illegible] power to deprive some
[illegible] who can become a strong
[illegible] criminal tendency

There is a class of delinquents who stand between criminals and normal men, because their offenses are less serious violations of the feelings of pity and are more of the nature of roughness, or indicate want of education and reserve. Such are blows in a fight, where there is no intention of murder; here there is little development of the alternative sentiment; here belong injuries and threats having no particular gravity. Imprisonment here is advantageous. The offender should pay also a fine to the State and also another for the benefit of the injured party.

Another large class of criminals are those who are totally or partially deprived of the sentiment of probity. Aside from the kleptomaniacs, pyromaniacs, the epileptic thieves and incendiaries, who should be placed in asylums for insane criminals, there are the thieves, incendiaries, swindlers, and forgers who are not insane, but who have a criminal instinct (according to Benedikt, it may be a moral neurasthenia). These and the habitual delinquents of this species, whether their improbity be congenital, or having commenced from bad education, example, or company, has become instinctive and incorrigible, should be transported into some distant land, where the population is small and where assiduous work is the absolute condition of existence. But if the neurasthenia is insurmountable, a further elimination into a savage country is necesary.

But it is objected that deportation is at an end, because civilization is invading the whole world. France has New Caledonia, where colonization has scarcely commenced, and where it sends its (recidivists) habitual criminals in spite of the opposition of the Australian government, which is more concerned as to a future commercial competition than the puerile fear of criminals fleeing New Caledonia and infesting Australia. Russia possesses immense Siberian regions, where the population is excessively sparse. The government of English India continues to send criminals to the islands of Andamans.

But, it is said, space will be wanting in the future, the mines will be exhausted, etc. Is it necessary to cease to care for the present world on account of a vague probability? After the large islands of Polynesia, Australia, and Malaysia, there will remain the innumerable Madreporic groups in the Pacific Ocean, which for the most part are deserted. When there is no more room here there will always be the Sahara and the center of Africa. For a few centuries at least there will not be wanting space where civilized nations can pour out their most impure elements.

But there is without doubt the economical side to solve. There are the expenses of transportation, the supervision, etc. We must consider, however, the expenses of our prisons at present, and that habitual criminality, which represents about half of the total of crimes, will be suppressed; also the criminal will be obliged to gain his living by agricultural work which will not fail. In prisons it is very difficult to employ *convicts* at useful labor.

nd subclass of criminals whose improbity is congenital, instinctive by habit, and who at the same time are, by number of their crimes, a pressing danger to society, it follow another plan than that of those whose depravity is and who have not yet become recidivists or extremely The latter is a very numerous class. The individual whose probity is not very profound becomes guilty on account le through imitation; often a first fault involves another. very humble social positions where a good reputation is domestic or workman who has been found stealing will another place; a new career then opens to him—that of a He will enter it without flinching, for his greatest safe- broken; he has nothing more to fear since his improbity overed.

ssible remedy here would be a change of country, habits, —a new existence to commence. Now, in order that the nflicted by the state may aid matters rather than make s at present, it is necessary to distinguish different cases he causes which have determined the crime.

ce 1850, has had agricultural colonies for young men ac- ount of lack of discernment, and for minors condemned six months or less than two years of imprisonment. The e varies from three to six years; agricultural work pre- Public money has never been spent more usefully, for the 93 out of every 100 who are adaptable to society. Other- r part of these would inhabit prisons for the rest of their expense of the nation. When the time arrives the di- colony places the young man with some farmer, or has nave or array. The individual thus finds himself away r [illegible]. Colonies of this kind can be established [illegible] without any danger, for the supervision of the [illegible]. Whatever difficulties there are, they are [illegible] colonies, where the men are con- rd [illegible] has been attempted in Italy, and is a grave

[illegible] there is a large number of eft, [illegible] brought to crime by idleness, igno- [illegible] part of vagabondage. Such cases [illegible] of workers for the state, with a nom- [illegible] to the ordinary, but which will be returned for [illegible] the damage to the injured party. [illegible] working and starving. The [illegible] after he has fulfilled his obligations [illegible] he should furnish security, which [illegible] of another similar crime, and will not be [illegible] until after a number of years of good conduct. In

case of the *récidive*, perpetual relegations should be made directly; all other means are inutile, because there is a proof of a persistent individual cause—aversion to work. The same treatment is adapted to swindlers and forgers.

But sometimes the delinquent is not an idler or vagabond; he has a trade by which he lives, he may be quite well-to-do, yet by a strange aberration he commits a theft, or by pure cupidity he takes money placed in his care, or he becomes suddenly a swindler, or forger, or bankrupt. But there is no proof of improbity on this account; as there exists no constant motive to determine a new crime, it is possible that the delinquent will not fall again, if his cupidity has been completely disappointed, so that he sees that honest conduct is much better for his own interests. For this, there is nothing better than forced payment of the fine and damage to the injured party. This would produce other advantages for society. An unfaithful cashier or fraudulent bankrupt would know that if once discovered he could not enjoy the smallest part of the money stolen, but would have to return all, every penny, or otherwise he would have to work an indefinite time for him whom he had robbed. This is a forcible way of causing the sudden reappearance of the sum that might be thought to be in the hands of consorts. This is much more useful than imprisonment for a fixed time, which is no profit to any one, and only adds to the damage from the crime the expense of supporting the prisoner. If the money has really been spent the offender must work without respite for repayment of the injured party. If he will not do it voluntarily, he will be obliged to do it by working for the state, where there is no bread without labor. If, in spite of his efforts, he is unable to gain a sufficient sum, after a certain number of years, according to his age or his good will, this constraint can be fixed to ten or fifteen years; but this term should be lengthened as soon as a want of assiduity is noticed. If the delinquent fulfills all his obligations, he is to be released, and deprived only of his political rights with interdiction of any public function, or of exercising commerce, if it is a case of a bankrupt.

It will be noticed that temporary detention for a fixed time in advance (the typical penalty of our present legislation) has entirely disappeared in the system that has just been outlined. This new system is an attempt to give to penalties a social utility, and this is done in the most logical manner, by the principal of rational reaction against crime; this consists sometimes in absolute elimination by the death penalty, or relative elimination by seclusion in an asylum, or deportation with abandonment, or perpetual relegation, or indefinite relegation, or simple damages with payment of a fine, or by public labor.

There are but few kinds of crime in which it is necessary to hinder the delinquent physically as the sole means of avoiding its repetition. Such is, for example, the counterfeiting of money. Here imprisonment is necessary until it is reasonable to suppose that they have no longer

mprisonment in advance applies to these cases, not in the
ality, in which there is a special immorality, incompati-
e attributive sentiments which are the basis of present
e immorality of these actions consists principally in a
authority or in disobedience of the law. If this political
dominant, the penalty should be of the nature capable of
ort of the law. This does not pertain to real malefactors,
. Here is the limit where the reason of the state replaces
ws of social organization, and where considerations as to

ainst an enemy with success, it is necessary to know him
Now this enemy, the criminal, the jurists do not know.
now him, one must have observed him for a long time in
to those who have thus studied that the future will re-
ssion of transforming penal science into harmony with
ies.

CRIMINAL SUGGESTION.

on experience that when one of a party yawns another
the same. There is an instinctive suggestion to look
rd are gazing on the street. This elementary power of
comes morbid in the case of the habitual thief. Any de-
he sees suggests taking it; there is a spontaneous feel-
ting to resist. If questioned closely why he takes it the
l repeated answer is simply that he likes to.

ustom in Denmark during the last century to have a pro-
iests, repeating psalms, accompany the criminals from
place of execution, after which a sermon was preached.
s suggestion from this display made condemned crimi-
s to dread such pomp. The result seemed to be a large
ur[illegible] the country. At one time martyrdom became
in the church that it was forbidden. Religious history
y examples of excessive enthusiasm arising from ner-
n. [illegible] after a few men have been killed the
l [illegible] the crowd, who rush upon the prisoners with
ess [illegible].

[illegible] a crowd as the resultant of all the actions
of the individual wills in contact. This collective will
suggestion [illegible] contrary to the principles of many of
ls [illegible]. What an excited crowd will do no
t, the most [illegible] has been transformed into a beast.
[illegible] the assassins severely;
[illegible] themselves, from curiosity or by ac-
[illegible] overcome by the excite-

[illegible] Mercy Lars 1888

ment and participated in the slaughter. In a crowd some people are taken with dizziness; others, not knowing what is going on, are influenced by the noise, or mystified, and give way to the least impulsion, imitating those around them, not knowing why; they may take arms without suspecting results. It is thus that riots sometimes arise.

War springs often from a patriotic suggestion, and frequently over some insignificant question; it is encouraged by the younger element in the nation rather than by the more experienced. The nation strives to annihilate its neighbors; there is thought of little else than the need to kill the enemy; this continuous suggestion becomes contagious and causes each citizen, howsoever egotistic and selfish, to be willing to give up his personal interests and business and fight for his country. Aubry says that war is a neurosis, a homicidal insanity.

In Europe, where dislike or hatred exists between nations, the immense standing armies are a constant suggestion of future utilization; they are a menace to the temporary equilibrium of the forces of hatred. The frequent outbursts of anarchistic or socialistic radicalism in the destruction of life or property are symptomatic of the neurotic temper of the times, and are a sign of a deeper social disease arising from the unfortunate condition of many in poverty or on the verge of poverty. Such discontented persons are particularly susceptible to dangerous suggestions, which can be fanned into a flame by the daily reading of detailed accounts of crime against government, property, or life. Every daring robbery, every throwing of dynamite or other riotous act, is almost certain to be followed by similar crimes.

A woman who throws vitriol upon her lover is seldom convicted. She is described in the newspapers; the color of her hair and her other charms are dwelt upon, her letters and her photograph are published. Women with more imagination than intelligence are fully prepared to imitate the heroine, when any peculiar grievance or temptation affords occasion. The force of such suggestion has been known to result in epidemics of vitriol throwing.

With those illustrations of the influence of criminal suggestion upon society as a whole, we may pass to the consideration of cases[1] of an experimental nature, and other special cases.

The difference between criminal suggestion, criminal hypnotism, and somnambulism in its deeper stages is one of degree, and thus individual cases may be found in these several stages.

It is possible during somnambulism to compel certain persons, contrary to their will, to commit immoral or criminal acts; and, according to the Nancy school, this can be accomplished after the subject has returned to his normal state and at an exact time which has been previously suggested to the subject during the hypnotic state. The writer has heard Prof. Forel tell a woman in the hypnotic state that

[1] We are indebted for some of these to Dr. Louis Laurent, formerly "interne" in the prisons of Paris.

ke she would see all the students headless. On awaking
zzled and on being asked why, said that the students
heads. The school of Salpêtrière does not admit that
suggestions are irresistible. It maintains also that a
n a state of somnambulism is always a person who can
ion in resisting suggestions repugnant to a profound
rouardel holds that the somnambulist realizes only agree-
ferent suggestions. Delboeuf[1] says that the hypnotized
that he is playing a comedy. Laurent[2] avows that he
somnambulists successfully resist all post hypnotic sug-
thers who were unable to resist doing acts repugnant

is[3] shows that a hypnotized person can be made to sign
nd that if it is suggested to him that he owes the money
will, on awaking, hold the note in memory and consider
iégeois said to a very suggestable lady, "You know that
hundred francs; kindly sign a note that will give me
ut, sir," the lady replied, "I do not owe you anything;
me any money." "Your memory fails you, madame,
e circumstances. You had asked me for this sum, and I
nd it to you. I gave it to you here yesterday in five-
By the force of his look and by his affirmation Liegeois
ssion of sincerity. Madame hesitated; her thought was
tried to remember; obedient to the suggestion, she at
the loan. This suggestion assumed in her mind a real
she signed the note.

[illegible] in this manner be made to sign
will, [illegible] the experiment would suc
[illegible] laboratory. It would be necessary
[illegible] very soon, for the suggestion
[illegible] would reason about it:
[illegible] and the hypnotizer would

[illegible] influence and say to him
[illegible] at such a time: you
[illegible] such a person, whom I
[illegible] but you must not
[illegible] believe that you
[illegible] suggestions of this nature
[illegible] the perpetrator
[illegible] connected the dead
[illegible] would afterwards

[illegible] jurisprudence

show by his words and actions that something was wrong; suspicion would be aroused, and it would be discovered that he was hypnotizable, and he himself as well as friends would attribute it to the hypnotizer.

It is possible to violate the conscience of a person in the somnambulistic state and to make him divulge the deepest secrets. Liébaut hypnotized a lady, and affirmed that he was a priest and that she had come to confession. She played her part seriously. Another physician had questioned his hypnotized patient with too much curiosity. The patient, after some hesitation, much blushing and embarrassment, said, "Mon Dieu! J'ai aimé Monsieur." The physician awoke her immediately. A similar case was that of a lady who, during the hypnosis, answered questions with a confidence so serious and dangerous to herself that the physicians hastened to awaken her.

Bernheim mentions that certain subjects who have been frequently hypnotized show a disposition when awake to obey suggestions. For example, children, who are very impressionable, have hallucinations and give false testimony. Laurent cites a mysterious case of a fourteen-year old girl, belonging to the Reformed confession, who disappeared. Nineteen Jewish families resided in the town where she lived. The report soon spread that, in order to obtain her blood to mix with the unleavened bread, the Jews had killed her. She had disappeared just before Easter. A cadaver was discovered in the river and recognized by certain persons to be the body of the girl. The mother of the girl, however, was incredulous, and would not recognize her daughter. Thirteen Jews were arrested on account of the statement of the son of the sexton, a boy thirteen years of age. After being questioned at length by the commissioner the boy made confessions: He heard a cry; he went out and looked through the keyhole of the lock of the temple; he saw Esther stretched upon the ground; three men held her while the butcher bled her by the throat and collected the blood into two bowls. In court the boy persisted in those confessions. The presence of his father, with twelve other Jews who were threatened, and the ardent supplications that he should tell the truth were of no avail. He repeated the statements.

Bernheim's explanation is that the commissioner by questioning the boy suggested the matter to him. His imagination was struck with terror; the scene was called up before him; a retroactive hallucination took possession of him, and he fancied all the incidents in the scene which the commissioner had mentioned. It was just as one can do experimentally in profound sleep: the hallucination is created; the remembrance of the fictitious vision is so vivid that the subject can not escape from it.

Liegeois reports a case of a woman who being accused of infanticide at first denied it, but on being further questioned by the police commissioner, and asked whether she had not placed the child where the

, after much hesitation, admitted it. The sage-femme
ked her the same question and she had confessed. She
onfessions before the judge and the court: "I took my
the door of the place where the pigs were; I threw it
ieve that it cried; I did not see it move." When this
en to prison, it became known that she was in an ad-
f pregnancy. This showed conclusively that the crime
as accused and convicted was impossible. On being
her, she said that her parents and the sage-femme had
make the confession; that they frightened her with the
severer condemnation if she did not confess. Laurent,
ng that the woman was vividly impressed, does not
was a matter of suggestion. He thinks it was a matter
y force, if she knew that she had not committed the
t impossible, however, that suggestion and persuasion

of a hysterical hereditary case[1] is that of a man who
r person, whom he knew but slightly, to confide to him
, which he was persuaded to carry to the pawn shop.
s dupe or accomplice, the initiative of his crime was
few days later the same man was imprisoned for three
ount of being deceived. Again at liberty, he became
f a woman who made him sell for her a gold watch and
had stolen. The man was gentle, well-disposed, and
e was easily influenced. His will had been paralyzed,
me his accomplice had the control of him.

the phenomenon of auto-suggestion, which can take the
nce. Some men, when enraged, treasure up thoughts
inst which neither reason nor sentiment is of avail.
nal act is accomplished, the fixed idea disappears, and
comes himself again. He is surprised at his act, and
was out of himself.

son a woman murdered and mutilated her infirm hus-
ghway. They left his body, without reflecting that it
sary to give explanations next morning. Dr. Laurent's
the woman and her son had lived for months with the
idding themselves of this man, who had kept them in
they were haunted by the suggestion of murder; and
ly a rudimentary conscience, they did not attempt to
st the temptation. To add to the auto-suggestion,
who was enamored of this woman, had promised to
further obscured their conscience, and rendered the
gestion all-powerful. Thus they lost prudence and com-
certain to bring them to the gallows.

[1] Laurent, "Les Suggestions Criminelles."

Tropmann is another case, best explained by auto-suggestion. Here is a young man, without bad antecedents, who commits an unheard-of monstrosity, with premeditation and great skill. He assassinates an entire family of seven or eight persons. He enticed the father into a forest of Alsace, poisoned him with prussic acid, and buried him. He dug a ditch in a field, enticed the elder son there, brutally murdered him, and buried him. He dug another trench for the mother and children, and, after enticing them there, killed them with a pickax and buried them. Tropmann desired to go to America to pass himself off for the father, and by some unknown means realize the modest fortune of this exterminated family. He was a man insignificant in appearance; his physique and moral character would not indicate that he was capable of such an infernal act. Bernheim is of the opinion that, in whatever way this idea may have entered his mind, it finally became an irresistible auto-suggestion, just as a fixed idea of suicide may culminate fatally.

It may be said that there is no specific method of procedure in order to prevent such crimes. In social as in bodily diseases there are certain conditions that no remedy can reach. While symptomatic and palliative treatment is possible, the state of social therapeutics, like that of medical, is unscientific and far from satisfactory. Often the truest and best advice a physician can give to his patient is to keep up the general health; nature will be his best servant in resisting all attacks of disease. The same principle is applicable to a diseased condition of the social organism. Since there is no "specific," the remedy must be general, gradual, and constant. It consists in religious, moral, industrial, and intellectual education of the children and youth, especially of the poor unfortunate and weakling classes. The most certain preventive is the early incarnation of good habits in children, which, becoming part and parcel of their nervous organization, are an unconscious power when passion or perplexity or temptation causes them to lose self-control. Without this inhibitory anchor many are certain to go astray. This power is generally proof against all criminal hypnotic suggestion. The methods by which such an education is to be best accomplished are as yet problematic.

THE NATIONAL PRISON ASSOCIATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

Perhaps the best method of indicating the prevailing criminological ideas in our country is to give a summary of some of the essays and discussions at one of the sessions of the National Prison Association.

As in America the practical spirit is the prevailing one, so, in the National Prison Association, the prevention and repression of crime rather than the study of the criminal has been the principal subject for consideration; and even though this method is not always the most rational, yet it has been gradually bringing to light the importance of

ito the causes and conditions of crime, so that the value
hods is beginning to be recognized.

ers of the National Prison Association consist not only
ve directly to do with crime, but of a large number of
ofessions and stations in life, the essays and discussions
and popular character rather than special; but they
s important for this reason.

dings of one of the late National Prison Associations
the association, Rutherford B. Hayes, maintained in
at especially in our own country crime is due to the
cial spirit of the day; it is the haste to become rich.
s often to the crimes of those who are rich, who are
ished, but too frequently admired and envied." As to
hods the president says that "the jails should not be
; that incorrigible or professional criminals should be
ife. The forms for the reformation of the prisoners are,
industry; then come education and religion. Manual
lustrial education are the best means in this country to
rl to make an honest living."

eeve, in his report of the committee on criminal-law
s that no law made in relation to crime and the dispo-
turbers of the public order can be based upon the idea
offender. The first consideration must be his removal
d his disposition in a place of safety. By an implied
ividual enjoys liberty only on the condition that he does
d if he does abuse it, or misuses his privileges, he should
s to the benefit of the contract and should be made to
ate as one unfit to be trusted with liberty. On this idea
er should be imprisoned, and the criminal law should
arily for this end; a secondary end of the law should
ation of the offender. The agreement of nine jurors
e a verdict after twenty-four hours of deliberation; no
to form or substance should be allowed to obstruct the
r judgment. Under the present practice the law pre-
sed to be innocent; yet its prosecutor pursues every
to show that he is guilty. This is absurd; if the law
its presumptions should be based on facts. The facts
n is accused of crime. This is the basis for inquiry.
e accused into custody to prevent an evasion of inquiry,"
ion that he will evade it if guilty. These are the facts,
e no presumptions of innocence or guilt under any rule
uestion should be, "Is the charge true or false?" What-
answering this question should be admissible to the
presumptions except such as legitimately arise from
ablished.

d strong grounds for belief in guilt, there should not

return a verdict of "not guilty," but return "not proven." In such a case the defendant should be put on trial at any time if sufficient evidence can be found to convict or acquit, and the former trial should be no bar as for being once in jeopardy. Punishment should be recognized only as a means for maintaining discipline in the prisons. High grades of crime, such as vicious and unprovoked murder, highway and train robbery, derailing railroad trains, criminal use of explosives, disfigurement by use of corrosives, willful perjury by which any innocent person is convicted of crime, and childstealing, should be regarded as unpardonable; and, in every case where the question of guilt is established beyond all doubt, the convicts be sent for life. Such characters are wholly within the domain of vicious and dangerous animals. Every State should have a board of charities and corrections, which should devote its whole time to the care of charitable and penal institutions. It should have judicial power, and rank with courts in dignity.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, in approving the report, said that the method of treating the criminal should be the same as with the insane, but he objected to paying the members of the State boards salaries and giving them executive power, which would make the office a political one. Gen. E. C. Foster, of the Department of Justice, at Washington, suggested that there should be a uniform system for the identification of convicts throughout the United States. Gen. Foster said, also, that a "prison bill" for the establishment of three United States prisons—one in the far West, one in the Middle States, and one in the Eastern States—had passed through the House and had been recommended by the Senate committee; that there was also at Washington a Prison Bureau for the purpose of collecting and collating prison statistics, and for carrying out the Bertillon system. This bill has been reported favorably.

Prof. Dr. Roland P. Falkner, in his address on "Criminal Statistics," says that the clearly defined functions of statistics is the observation of large numbers; its proof is not complete until it has embraced all possible causes. Its office is to prove on a large scale what in a limited field has been suspected; its proof is therefore a necessary complement to the researches in criminal anthropology. The preparation of statistics should be in the hands of a central office. The secretary or statistician should prepare an annual report which should give tables showing the number of prisoners of each race, sex, age, etc., at each separate institution. The following is an illustration of a statistical card:

ANNUAL STATISTICS OF PRISONERS

MALE.

Name and location of institution.
Number of card.
Name and number of inmate, . When received.
1. White. Colored. Chinese. Indian. Mexican.
2. Birthplace of inmate (state or foreign country).

f inmate's father, ——.
of inmate's mother, ——.
irthday previous to ——. Date of birth, ——.
rried. Widower. Divorced.
before commitment, ——.
. Able to write. Number of years at school.
hich sentenced, ——.
entence, ——. Indeterminate sentences: Years, ——, months,
——.
revious convictions to state institutions, ——.

. Wines says as to the parole system: "That unless you and grade system honestly carried out in prison and litical and outside influence, and make it almost a crime director to consider an outside application, and unless parole dependent on the accurate prison record of the ould better have no parole system."

A. Brush, of Sing Sing, N. Y., made the report of the ittee on prison discipline. Among other things he says:

upon the discussion we will consider the classes of men in our auses which led them there. A large number are in our prisons no proper discipline in the family; free indulgence of parents; or eir children in small things, which causes evil habits in the child alning lasts for a lifetime.

ortion of our prison population are guilty of crime against

g Sing 2 inmates for advertising counterfeit money; 11 for arson; 5 for carrying burglars' tools; 6 for destroying property; 48 for and larceny; 1 for horse stealing; 31 for receiving stolen goods—

r crimes against both person and property, and 292 for crimes . Sixty of these are for manslaughter, 52 for murder, 39 for rape, harm, 18 for assault to kill.

tence, excepting 65, who are for life, average five years and six y-five days.

cupations of the men are as various as their crimes. Two hundred ions are represented in the Sing Sing prison: 22 bakers, 22 bar- mithe, 34 bookkeepers, 10 bricklayers, 20 butchers, 24 carpenters, 42 clerks, 31 cooks, 113 drivers, 19 farmers, 11 hostlers, 222 la- ts, 35 peddlers, 10 plumbers, 10 policemen, 31 printers, 23 sailors, hoemakers, 25 stonecutters, 27 tailors, 18 tinsmiths, 64 waiters, 2 Sunday school superintendents, 10 who claim no occupation, 7 lieves, 3 lawyers, and 3 physicians, and 1 each of the following ad president, reporter, editor, hotel-keeper, sexton, and alderman. n population of 375. Austria sends us 11, Bermuda 2, Canada 9, 1, East Indies 2, England 37, Finland 5, France 6, Germany 97, ry 3, Ireland 111, Italy 36, Mexico 1, Nova Scotia 3, Poland 15, 2, Russia 10, Scotland 6, Sweden 5, Switzerland 2, Wales 1, West n 2. The crimes of the 36 Italians are nearly all against the per- arly 100 Hebrews, almost all for crimes against property. The ers vary from 15 to 70. The average age is less than 28. Only 36 f age; 1,281 are white, 103 black, 2 Indian, and 2 Chinese. One dred and forty-eight of our inmates had a common school educa- ademic education, 6 a collegiate education, leaving only 120 un-

educated out of 1,383 now in Sing Sing; 1,056 are there for the first time. The number of the employed when the crime was committed and that of the unemployed is about equal. The number received in the prison during the last fiscal year was 865. Of these 24 had been in a Catholic Protectory, 23 were graduates of the Elmira Reformatory, 1 of the Massachusetts Reform School, and 1 of the New Jersey Reform School; 766 had attended Sunday school when boys, 865 were brought up at home, and 3 by strangers. Only 23 per cent of the number had been in this prison before, while 31 per cent had been in other penal institutions.

I have given these few statistics to show the difficulty that surrounds prison discipline.

Owing to the fact that the worst criminals have the best conduct, it is difficult to judge what their conduct will be when released from prison, and this is the strongest argument for the indefinite sentence. For if a man is to be released upon his good behavior in the prison and his apparent reformation while there, we may, and very likely will, release many of our worst criminals, while men of lesser tact, who transgress the rules from a want of firmness and decision, would remain in prison for a long time, if not for life.

Work - the first thing necessary for prison discipline—should be the same as done outside of prison, where the prisoner can see something grow under his hands. Punishment for disobedience to the regulations of the prison must be severe, certain, and the same to every inmate, for the prisoner will always claim exact justice. The severer the punishment the less it will have to be resorted to. No discipline is complete that does not give the prisoners a fair education. Every man discharged should be able to read and write. The deputy warden is the only officer, except the warden, who should be allowed to punish a prisoner.

The keepers of a prison should be selected by the warden, and never for political or charitable reasons. A keeper not interested in his vocation, except for the salary, is worthless. The warden is entirely responsible for the discipline of the prison, and his power over officers should be absolute. An aid to discipline is the granting of privileges to the prisoners, such as writing or receiving letters, receiving visits from patents, and luxuries occasionally. These privileges can keep up what is best in a man, and the temporary deprivation of them will aid in keeping the unruly in order.

Those who are in the habit of using tobacco, I would give tobacco. This aids greatly in keeping up discipline. Prisoners should be made to feel that officers are desirous of benefiting them.

Mr. Z. R. Brockway, superintendent of Elmira Reformatory, says:

In the main I heartily agree with this report, but I do not believe that the difficulty of determining the reformation of the criminal is an argument against the indeterminate sentence. Certainly the officer in charge of the prison can better determine his progress towards reformation than can the judge at the date of his trial and conviction. But, as a matter of fact, there is no difficulty, under a proper system, of determining the fitness of a man for free life. There are three conditions:

(1) A perfect record, not only in demeanor but in school work and in labor.

(2) Then he must have a trade or occupation, and arrangement must be made for him in society outside for entering under favorable conditions.

(3) Then he must have that impalpable something about him which inspires confidence in him. It does not seem difficult to me at all to decide as to his fitness. Privileges under the indeterminate sentence are not necessary as a means of discipline, for you always have the supreme motive of liberty. You may deprive and indulge a prisoner by privileges without very much regard to its effect. On admission, a prisoner should be entirely cut off, for a time, from his old life. For he does not realize he is in prison. There should be no letters, visits, scarf pins, neckties, handkerchiefs, candy, tobacco, goodly garments, or the stuff he will live outside, his thoughts will be outside, and he can not be got into the grand of the system

ablished for his improvement. At first he must be cut off entirely world. This is vastly better than to let the men retain their old diately, especially as not more than 7 to 10 per cent come from per cent have no families at all, and to the rest it is a matter of to officers, it is impossible to obtain the best men. I desire intel- e all, disciplined officers, who, like soldiers, will obey; a human xperimenting in the gradation of prisoners, not only at Sing Sing cial position in our own institution. Under the military system I periment in the use of prisoners promoted to officers in the first em on the pay-rolls. We have thirty-five on duty. They are vastly ns, for they have been trained themselves.

OUND: In regard to judging as to the fitness of a man to release, f the rules are properly made and enforced, even if a man obeys for d, he is constantly fitting himself better to go out into society than not obey the rules. Keeping a strict record for a year, we found per cent of Elmira graduates falling back into their old habits.

ey, of the Elmira Reformatory, in his paper on "Crim- ogy," gives a careful survey of the general points in the of crime.

nclined to the most advanced views of criminology. In e physical characteristics of criminals, he points to the in due to indoor life of the prisoner; he shows that prison ory action upon the heart, due to a discontinuance of the as at Elmira, and alcoholics, and to a substitution of a l rythmical manner of living, plain and unstimulating of insufficient and improper food, late hours, sexual associated dissipations.

eatedly observed at adolescence large and prominent nded by areolas that were pigmented more than usual. ds as large as a hickory nut have been observed in some; iodicity of turgescence of this rudimentary organ, accom- secretion of an opaque fluid and a sensation of fullness erred to the region of the nipple.

of this class of persons are somewhat developed; the usually intense. Prison life does not repress this sense; tions are as difficult to control as the craving for intoxi- ral, Dr. Wey holds that criminality is a collateral degen- ame category as insanity and inebriety.

T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, ent paper entitled, "The philosophy of crime and pun- Harris, among other things, says:

you on the philosophy of crime and punishment from the side of ication. Crime is the attack made by the individual against the the course of ages the state has learned how to measure crime and ment; it has discovered that this can be done by returning the deed But the new penology has by degrees moved forward to a platform of abstract justice. In the name of humanity in general, whose al wears, we add reformatory measures to punishment, and strive punishments that they shall not neutralize the reformatory efforts. nsight is reformatory in proportion to its clearness. Habit rein-

forces intellectual conviction, and here is the great force of military training; habit makes a second nature. In the present age individual restraints have been removed to such an extent that there is less temptation for that kind of crime which formerly showed itself in open revolt against government. The criminals are mostly weaklings, who can not use properly the freedom that is given to all classes of society; their immature development in responsibility does not need justice; it needs nurture, the principle of the family, and the educative function. Educative efforts increase self help. It is found that the weakling class, that comes into jails and insane asylums, is disproportionately large from illiterate classes. The assertion that with education crime increases is misleading. In 1870 an investigation of the returns of seventeen states showed eight times as many criminals from the illiterate stratum of the population as from an equal number of the population who could read and write. This investigation included 110,000 prisoners. A recent study undertaken by the United States Bureau of Education shows that in the thirty prisons reporting for 1888 three and one-fourth times as many criminals came from the illiterate as their quota allowed. The two pillars of school education are good behavior and the course of study; here habits of regularity, punctuality, silence, and industry are encouraged; these are elementary social virtues. Courtesy and obedience to rules are direct disciplines to prepare the child for a law-abiding manhood. All kinds of schools are necessary in dealing with the weakling class of the community, and manual training is one of the best additions made to the curriculum for the prevention and cure of crime.

THIRD SESSION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR CRIMINAL ANTHROPOLOGY AT BRUSSELS, AUGUST, 1892.

The distinctive feature of the third session of the International Congress for Criminal Anthropology is the prominent part that jurists and lawyers took in its debates and deliberations. This alliance of the legal with the scientific is an opportune one, for it brings into prominence the practical application of the results of criminological studies. The congress for criminal anthropology should be sharply distinguished from the international congress for prison and penitentiary systems. The former consists almost entirely of university professors, jurists, and scientific specialists; the latter of prison wardens and others who have had to do with the practical side of the prevention or repression of crime. This division of labor in the common contest against crime, for the benefit of the state and humanity, is logical as well as practical, for it enables both to accomplish the work better. To say which congress is of the greater importance to society would not only be hazardous, but impossible. Certain it is that both are of the highest significance. The programme of the congress for criminal anthropology, or, in a word, criminology, was divided under a few heads; first, criminology in general, then more especially the psychology and psycho pathology of criminals entering into morbid or diseased conditions. The division under criminal sociology points to the political and economical side of crime. Under the head of legal and administrative applications of criminology came considerations that form the link between the two congresses.

general idea of the congress, we shall enter at once into
ns and conclusions of its members.

, publicist at Moscow, in his report as to the fundamen-
f criminal anthropology or criminology, traced the origin
o Gall, its grandfather, and to "Lombroso, the father
In speaking of the Italian school, he acknowledged the
Lombroso, but could not follow him in all his opinions.
the principles and tendencies of the school of criminal
s as follows:

ogy renounces entirely the law of retaliation as end,
sis of all judicial punishment. The basis and purpose
is the necessity of protecting society against the sad
f crime, either by moral reclamation of the criminal or
on from society; punishment is not to satisfy vengeance.
ology it is not sufficient to study the fact of crime; the
lf must be considered; it becomes necessary to define
ch produce crime, to study the sphere of action of the
l as measures for the safety of society against his acts.
es not study the criminal in the abstract and speculate
r responsibility; but it analyzes him according to results
ic, and with the aid of exact methods which apply
nvestigation of other phenomena.

the results of two factors are seen reciprocally reacting:
dual peculiarities from the nature of the criminal or his
l organization, then the peculiarities of external influ-
e, nature of country, and social surroundings.

pon exact results, criminology reveals the criminal as
more or less unfortunate, vicious, impoverished, ill-bal-
e, and so not adapted to struggle with surrounding con-
nsequently incapable of maintaining this struggle in
hed ways. This defect of adaptation for the majority
, but varies with the conditions.

es of crime fall into three categories: (*a*) immediate,
m the character of the criminal; (*b*) more remote, which
his unfavorable surroundings, under the influence of
peculiarities are developed into more or less constant
s; (*c*) predisposing causes which push these ill-propor-
ously developed organizations towards crime.

sing crime upon scientific grounds, criminology has as
ndamental study of the actual criminal and his crimes
enomena, which it must investigate throughout their
rom their genesis to their full growth and final develop-
he phenomenon of crime is united with great social

on these principles, criminology logically recognizes an
l sense in repressive measures determined *in advance* as

to their duration and specific character. Criminology, on the contrary, affirms the necessity of studying individual peculiarities, before rendering decisions in advance. The term of punishment should endure so long as the causes exist which necessitate it; it should cease as soon as the causes do.

Manouvrier, who is professor in the anthropological school at Paris, and the well-known opponent of Lombroso's criminal type, in his paper on the comparative study of criminals and normal men, did not find any real distinctive differences except in surrounding conditions, which modify the associations or combinations of habitudes and correlatively the anatomical conformation.

Dr. Lacassagne, professor at Lyons, in discussing the primordial sentiments of criminals, distinguished three classes: The frontals, (intellectual), the parietals or impulsive class, and the occipitals or the emotional class; the brain is an agglomeration of instincts which at a given moment can have a special function, and it is the preponderance of one of these instincts which can control the whole situation; this explains the want of reflection and of prudence in criminals; cerebral equilibrium, on the contrary, indicates virtue. The occipital instincts are in close relations with the viscera, and so with nutrition; hence the importance of these as social factors. This indicates that in the future it may be necessary to found the theory of criminality upon cerebral function.

One of the most important papers in the Congress was that on "Morbid Criminal Possession" by Dr. Magnan, physician and superintendent of the Ste. Anne Insane Asylum at Paris. Such a morbid possession consists generally of an idea isolated and independent of the ordinary course of thought; it is a mode of activity in the brain, in which a word or image imposes itself upon the mind, apart from the volition; in the normal state, this idea or possession gives no special uneasiness, but in abnormal persons it can produce a painful agony and become irresistible. In the normal state the possession is transitory and generally easy to repress, and does not involve the other intellectual operations. But in an abnormal or diseased subject the individual can be irresistibly pushed to acts which he consciously disapproves of. Owing to a want of knowledge of such states, judicial and medical errors have not been infrequent. Thus a person pushed by the possession of the irresistible idea to murder (generally a cherished friend), although horrified by the thought, commits the act. One of Magnan's patients, when having a premonition of the impulsion coming on, would shut herself up in a room until relieved.

A not uncommon possession is that exemplified in the case of a merchant, 40 years of age, who during a short stay in Paris entered a restaurant and on taking up a journal read the following incident: A young lady walking by the side of her father slipped and fell down, but without serious accident. The merchant knew neither the

r her father. On returning home, these different facts
nd, but one detail was missing: the name of the young
to sleep, but in vain; he was possessed with the idea to
name; his anxiety increased; he awakens his wife who
anxious, and with perspiration upon his forehead. He
tory; he recognizes the absurdity of his worry; yet he
ns round the room moaning and constantly repeating
name!" He passes the night in this desolation, and
orning runs to the restaurant, finds the same newspaper
divers facts again with the young lady's name; he
ame, repeating it aloud; this calms him and his desire
Thus it is with the kleptomaniac, the pyromaniac, and
bid sexual possessions.

Dr. Ladame, professor at Geneva, an individual pos-
e idea of murder belongs to the group of hereditary
rates; such individuals are rare. If it be admitted that
ssession is frequent, on the other hand it rarely pushes
t is turned towards the individual himself, resulting in
Ladame maintains that heredity is the main predisposing
ecasional cause is also necessary, and this is principally
ion of details in great crimes. An acquired predisposi-
alcoholism. It is necessary to distinguish between in-
s and those pushed to murder by morbid possessions.
ng to the large category of those affected by hereditary
psomania, kleptomania, etc. The possession of the idea
poradic, but is more frequently found under the form of
nic, resulting from the widespread knowledge of great
m capital executions.

stirred up more discussion than criminal suggestion.
ished men were frankly agnostic as to conclusions of their
it may be said that those who have made the most exper-
normal and abnormal subjects are convinced that crim-
n and hypnotism can be produced experimentally, and
ur in society.

hysician at La Salpêtrière, who is especially qualified to
d to hypnotism, especially as to its therapeutical value,
t criminal suggestibility in the waking or hypnotic state
nnected with debility or mental degeneracy of the individ-
e suggestion is given. There is a small number capable
criminal acts upon the example of degenerated impulsive
The penal responsibility of an individual having commit-
der the influence of hypnotic suggestion should be de-
onforming to the French penal code (article 64), which
is neither crime nor misdemeanor, if the accused was in
entia at the time of the act, or if he has been constrained
ch he could not resist." As to its therapeutical value,

hypnotism in the hands of a physician can give admirable results. It can also save from crime and from the condemnation of the innocent, as well as from disease.

Dr. Berillon, editor of the "Revue de l'Hypnotisme," as a result of his own investigations and experiments in criminal suggestion, believes he is justified in concluding that certain individuals present in the waking state such a suggestibility that it would be possible to make them execute automatically and unconsciously, when under the influence of verbal suggestion, misdemeanors or crimes. If it is shown that the accused acted under such suggestions, he should not be held responsible. On the other hand, authors of criminal suggestions should be held guilty in the same way as those who by abuse of authority or power or by machinations provoke the accomplishment of a crime or misdemeanor, or simply give instructions to commit it (French penal code, article 60).

Neither Prof. Benedikt, of Vienna, nor Prof. Mendel, of Berlin, believe in the existence of crime by suggestion. Dr. Masoin, professor at Louvain, answered that negations can not prevail in the presence of facts. Voisin insisted again on his opinion, since by hypnotism he had saved from condemnation a woman, to whom a crime had been suggested. Dr. Houze, professor of anthropology at Brussels, believed that hysteria could be cured by hypnotism and that certainly it could be ameliorated; he believed also in the reality of criminal suggestion.

Judge Tarde, of Sarlat, in France, well known as the author of "The Laws of Imitation" and of "Social and Penal Philosophy," gave with his usual analytical *finesse* a curious and paradoxical discourse on the "Crimes of Crowds." Morally and intellectually men in throngs are less valuable than in detail, that is, social collectivity, especially when it takes the form of a crowd, is morally inferior to the average individual in the crowd; thus a nation is not as moral as its normal "citizen" type; the public are not as moral as the individuals which compose it. The collective spirit, which we call parliament or congress, is not equal in rapid or sure power of functioning, or in profoundness or amplitude of deliberation, to the spirit of the most mediocre of its members, whence the proverb: *senatores boni viri, senatus autem mala bestia.* Even a liberal sect will become intolerant and despotic; a crowd, still more so; in both cases despotism in any event is much more intolerant and despotic than among a majority of the members. Why? Because the contiguity and concentration of opinions are molded into conviction and faith, which became fanatical; that which was a simple desire in the individual becomes a passion in the crowd. The crowd is a retrograde social organism; no matter how perfect, it is passionate, not rational. The more collective a crime the less it is punished. The best police force can not suppress the brutality of the crowd, unless the press cease to publish that which produces excitation to crime or misdemeanor. The jury will not punish such crimes, especially when they have a political

he necessity of an exclusive criminal magistrature is
unishment should be, above all, as an example. The
uld be punished in the measure that his impunity is

, medical expert at Lyons, in his paper on the influence
n on criminality, advocated the increase of penalty where
he profession aggravates the crime, as in the case of
ysicians. Following the principle of social necessity, the
he use of injurious substances in food, defamation of
urnalists, etc., should be increased.

ve importance of anthropological and social elements in
tion of penalty was considered by Dr. Gauckler; he
e essential function of criminal law is to prevent crime
, and that this function is conditioned exclusively by
; a secondary function is to be assured as to the "innoc-
offender, and also in some degree to repair the prejudice
ictim suffers.

szt, of the University of Halle, in considering the appli-
inal anthropology, said that the most important one is
o criminal sociology. The profound difference between
ture and by occasion is a result that can be immediately
lation. Among the delinquents by nature are found a
f degenerated individuals especially marked by heredity.
seek to combat and ameliorate the criminal by degener-
inal is young, the most preferable measures are those
Whether the criminal is incurable or not society must
gainst him and he must be protected against himself.
riminal is responsible or not he must in any event be
is impossible for him to do injury if he is dangerous to
.

kt submitted the following resolution, that anthropolog-
ical studies are indispensable for the placing of penal
solid foundations.

mel, of Amsterdam, in his report on measures applicable
ble, concluded that the principal indication of incorrigi-
vation; against recidivists penalty should assume the
ial defense, on account of the danger; there should be
detention for the incorrigible; there should be periodic
to such cases, and a large latitude left to competent
h should be judiciary.

f the same question, Prof. Alimena held to the idea of
sed imprisonment proportionate to the number of crimes;
uilty of small misdemeanors, especially with recidivists,
short terms of punishment, and a substitution of oblig-
special institutions, in companies for work and in inte-
n. There should be perpetual relegation or deportation
ho have passed the maximum of recidivation.

Prof. Thiry, of Liège, held to the word incorrigible in the relative sense; for him the basis of incorrigibility is the permanent moral influence to which the individual succumbs; he did not believe in perpetual, but in indeterminate, detention; there was also no necessity for judiciary intervention to prolong or interfere with the detention, as administrative responsibility and the supervision already in use were sufficient to prevent arbitrary action.

Dr. Maus formulated his conclusions as follows: The measures to be taken in regard to hardened recidivists should be, first, those that are best known: to send into the prison asylums those whose recidivation has a pathological cause; to increase considerably and in a gradual manner the duration of the punishment until it becomes perpetual for the serious crimes; finally to render repression more subjective by applying it with a view to reformation, according to the state of the criminal and the nature of the crime. Such a difficult task requires not only specialists with experience and knowledge of insanity, but perhaps it can not be accomplished without the aid of sincere devotion and sacrifice. Prevention also plays a rôle in combatting the social causes of recidivation, as degeneracy, alcoholism, prostitution, misery, etc.; these factors render vain in great part the efforts of the penitentiary, producing more recidivists than the penitentiary can correct.

Prof. Prins, of Brussels, who is the general inspector of prisons, placed the indeterminate sentence under two heads; delinquency for misery and for degeneracy; but in regard to repression proper, he saw great practical difficulties for those who are incorrigible and criminal by passion. As to the liberation of the incorrigible, relatively speaking, the appreciation of a judge or administrator is not sufficient guarantee. The solution of the question of the incorrigible lies in a progressive aggravation of punishment; and it is especially necessary to renounce prison luxury.

Dr. Paul Garnier, chief physician of the "Prefecture de Police" of Paris, in considering the necessity of a psycho moral examination of certain accused persons as a duty of the court, said, if it is deemed excessive to ask judicial authorities to organize a medical inspection for the accused (which does not take the place of the medico-legal expert, but designates to him the cases to be inquired into) it is nevertheless a necessity in presence of frequent judicial errors. A magistrate intrusted with so delicate a mission as to decide whether a medico-legal expert is needed should at least possess certain indispensible notions of a scientific order to make such decision. If the judge orders experts, he should be able to judge of their utility and to control the results through special knowledge; but such special knowledge necessary for the interpretation of scientific facts is outside the domain of a magistrate, however brilliant and judicious he may be.

CHAPTER IV.

ALCOHOLISM.

ay be considered briefly, first, in its general bearings, a form of insanity. The relation between alcoholism, n, and charity is most intimate. For example, a certain who tried to kill an aged woman, without provocation, he was six years of age his father used to return home his mother and throwing sticks of wood at him. He hile, but afterward left home, and though not a thief o steal for a living; was sent to a juvenile asylum, and, ent among farmers to live under their care, being kindly ery few, whipped, and otherwise roughly treated by ing a month or so with different farmers, he finally a tramp, and leaving all farmers wandered two years, and sleeping wherever he could. Thus alcohol gave o thieving. Charity endeavored to counteract these f six years of unfavorable surroundings) in two years, es acquired by early treatment had gained too strong the following stages were tramping, pauperism, and ses are typical, and almost wholly the result of evil or which society is culpable, and for which she suffers orally and financially. The alcoholic may be a good sober, but from irregularity he loses his position and es a pauper. A sad fact in connection with alcoholism e kindest and most genial natures are for this very hrough the unintentional influence of friends, for they resist the so-called feeling of good fellowship when er. From the ethical point of view, it is questionable s the right to take the chances of causing another to *r to forego the physical, intellectual, or social pleasure of y luxury or non-necessity than to aid in the physical, ruin of a fellow-being.*

of ethics to all these forms of abnormal humanity is as diversified. It is ethically questionable whether it is beggars; for by so doing we encourage them by vir- hem to beg, and if not already paupers they can be staken philanthropy. It is a common saying and prac-

tice of Americans traveling in Europe to give every beggar "a cent to get rid of him." This, of course, has just the opposite effect.

All these abnormal forms of humanity are different degrees of evil or wrong, the highest of which is crime. They are all links of one chain. This chain is that which we denote by the words evil, bad, unjust, wrong, etc.

These forms, to wit, criminality, alcoholism, pauperism, etc., may all be considered under the head of "charitological." Thus the different institutions, such as prisons, insane asylums, inebriate and orphan asylums, institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, and defectives; hospitals, dispensaries, relief for the poor in any form; church missions, and different forms of philanthropical work are, of course, charitable in their purpose. The difference between these institutions is one of degree, as an examination of the inmates would soon show. The pauper may be or may have been a criminal or insane or alcoholic, or the criminal may be or may have been a pauper or insane or alcoholic, and so on.

The close relation of alcoholism to insanity is shown by the statement of a specialist (Krafft-Ebing) that all forms of insanity, from melancholia to imbecility, are found in alcoholism. It is artificial; it begins with a slight maniacal excitation; thoughts flow lucidly, the quiet become loquacious, the modest bold; there is need of muscular action; the emotions are manifest in laughing, singing, and dancing. Now the aesthetical ideas and moral impulses are lost control of, the weak side of the individual is manifested, his secrets revealed; he is dogmatic, cruel, cynical, dangerous; he insists that he is not drunk, just as the insane insists on his sanity. Then his mind becomes weak, his consciousness dim, illusions arise; he stammers, staggers, and like a paralytic his movements are uncertain.

The principal character of these mental disturbances consists in a moral and intellectual weakness; ideas become lax as to honor and decorum. There is a disregard of the duties of family and citizenship. Irritability is a concomitant; the slightest thing causes suspicion and anger which is uncontrollable. There is a weakness of will to carry out good resolutions, and a consciousness of this leads some to request to be placed in an asylum, for they are morally certain in advance that they can not resist temptation. Thus one has been known to have his daughter carry his wages home, as he could not pass a saloon on the way without going in if he had any money with him. Now it is a weakness of memory, a difficulty in the chain of thought and a weak perception, until imbecility is reached.

There may be disturbances in brain circulation, causing restless sleep, anxious dreams, confusion, dizziness, headache. Such circulatory disturbances in the sense organs can give rise to hallucinations. There is a trembling in hands, face, lips, and tongue. In short, there is a gradual mental and bodily degeneration.

From the medical point of view, a cure is generally doubtful, for in

l abstinence is impossible. The patient must be placed
ylum, or better, in a hospital for inebriates, where total
be enforced. Patients with delirium tremens especially
careful hospital treatment. The principal directions are
strength and cerebral quiet, strong unirritating diet,
ves, etc. Such in general is considered to be the best
ent. A certain French specialist (Magnan) says that a
insane to drink; but the drunkard is insane after he

EWS OF DR. A. BAER ON DRUNKENNESS.

things are not the most simple when studied. The
re total-abstinence advocate has a high moral aim in
s his loyalty by his sacrificial spirit, and thinks his
d simple that he never doubts it.
otal abstinence from wine in France and beer in Ger-
bjecting to the use of coffee and tea in England or
question of total abstinence is manifestly a local one;
the country, or even State, city, or town. To insist
is either right or wrong in the absolute sense is an
e the relative absolute, which is a contradiction. There
t questions, the purely ethical and the purely scientific;
are separated for convenience, they are in reality to-
the end the facts decide the "ought." The practical
seems to turn on this point: to what extent the use
ld be prohibited when it is abused. Many ethical diffi-
between good and evil, but between two evils, as to
sser. Yet it must be admitted that total abstinence is
e.
eresting to follow one of the recent European investiga-
er,[1] of the Imperial Board of Health, and chief prison
erlin.
wine was used almost wholly by the well-to-do classes,
f such a nature that harm was out of the question.
of alcohol first began with the art of distillation, and
ing of strong concentrated whisky from corn, potatoes,
With the increase in the use of whisky, a series
have appeared, which are designated by the word

s an important factor. Drunkenness is more frequent
wine consumed, and is more brutal and injurious in
e go [illegible]. Yet this is not always true, for within the
alcohol [illegible] has greatly decreased in Sweden, and in-
hern France and northern Italy. In tropical regions it
reading fast, and with great injury, especially in newly-

[1] [illegible] Wien und Leipzig, 1889.

discovered lands. The accustoming one's self to the use of alcohol causes, sooner or later, a feeling of need for it; alcoholism is not, therefore, an inborn instinctive need, but an acquired one. Experience teaches that the longer this vice exists in a nation the greater the vice becomes. Persons who misuse alcoholic drinks, especially whisky, often become sick and die sooner than the moderate drinkers and nondrinkers. When alcohol is taken habitually, and when misused, it injures the whole constitution; all tissues and organs, and especially the blood, suffer sooner or later a pathological change, with which susceptibility to disease is increased. Alcohol intoxication not only calls out diseases and disturbances that the nondrinker does not have, but it gives rise to a greater morbidity. It is an old experience that in epidemics of cholera, dysentery, and small-pox, drinkers are attacked in larger numbers, and with greater intensity, than nondrinkers. The bad constitution of the blood, the weakness of the changed heart-muscles, the sunken energy of the nervous functions, and the frequent accompanying disease of the brain, give a bad course to every disease, and a high mortality. The greater mortality of drinkers, as compared with nondrinkers, is shown by the figures of the "United Kingdom Temperance and General Provident Association," an insurance company founded since 1847:

Year.	Total abstainers.		General division.	
	Deaths expected	Actual deaths.	Deaths expected.	Actual deaths.
1866–1870	519	411	1,008	944
1871–1875	723	511	1,268	1,330
1876–1880	933	651	1,485	1,480
1881–1885	1,179	845	1,670	1,530
1886–1887	553	390	713	700
Total	4,907	2,798	6,144	5,984

In the "Total abstainers' division," 71 per cent of the expected deaths occurred; in the "General division," 97 per cent. Other companies give similar figures.

Sweden, which, up to recent times, was considered the most drunken land, owed this state of things principally to the excess of small saloons and to a very small tax on whisky. The great decrease in the number of these saloons, in connection with an increase of the whisky tax and with a temperance movement, has lessened drunkenness to a great extent. As the use of whisky decreased, the number of sick and dead from alcoholism lessened also. In Norway, also, a bad legislation had a similar effect in spreading drunkenness. With the decrease of consumption of whisky, that of beer increased; and no land has shown more improvement through the decrease of drunkenness than Norway. In Russia the alcohol consumption is great in certain parts, but in Russia as a whole it is not so considerable as one would expect from the amount of alcoholism. The results of the abuse of alcohol are in a great measure due to the climate and the social condition of the

es the raw climate, there is an insufficient nourishment, vegetable, which drives to whisky; this is not taken ies, and regularly, as in other nations, but seldom, and ies, on holidays (ninety-six yearly), in family celebra- t-days. Recently alcoholism has decreased. In Hol- et, foggy climate and great number of seaports, there a large consumption of alcohol, increased by the ex- number of licensed places, and especially from the fact sold in many kinds of business (baker's, hairdresser's, equence, there is a great increase of insanity through l delirium tremens. In France, in former centuries, hardly known so long as wine was the alcoholic drink. t exportation of wine, and by the recent appearance of ylloxera, and a like alcohol production from turnips, d potatoes, the alcohol consumption has gradually ts consequent misuse has followed. The consumption ore than trebled within fifty-five years. Where wine ere is the greatest consumption of whisky. The num- is directly proportional to the increase in alcohol con- number of fatal accidents due to alcohol has shown ase.

consumption of alcohol is, on the whole, very small. the northern provinces; more recently it has in- consumption of wine has decreased. In Austria n of beer is decreasing, while that of whisky is Germany the consumption of both beer and whisky asing. The use of beer, as compared with whisky, h in different provinces of Germany: in the east and whisky and little beer; in the west and northwest, in the south, very little whisky, but a great deal of the increase of the consumption of whisky is mainly production and very great cheapness. The consump- drinks within the last ten years, especially strong n added by the rapid increase in the number of saloons. between drunkenness and crime is not always a parallel not alone conditioned by the quantity or intensity of or [illegible] to many social conditions also; but rable conditions are aided by drunkenness, and in this of alcohol increases crime very greatly. It can be said ncrease of intemperance and of drinkers by no means he increase of alcoholism the number of criminals and . Misuse of alcohol means poverty and pauperism, ain sources of crime. The injury of drunkenness to ot be overlooked, but daily experience teaches that noth- family [illegible] as much; the boys fall into idleness, sloth- ally into crime; the girls become the booty of pros-

Some of the preventive means against intemperance are: (1) Education of the children of the working classes in an orderly, industrious, and economic life; (2) construction of healthy dwellings for the working classes, so that an overcrowded room may no longer encourage the workingman to seek the saloon; (3) better food, so that he may not be tempted to make up for this want by a temporary supply of whisky, which deceives him in causing him to suppose that he is gaining strength; (4) public coffee houses, with home-like surroundings, papers to read, etc.; (5) formation of temperance societies, which in many ways warn others against the evils of intemperance. While the total-abstinence societies have done much good, yet a very practical organization exists in Switzerland which has three categories of members: (*a*) Those who are total abstainers; (*b*) those who take the pledge for a certain length of time; and (*c*) those who assist the society in a financial way. In this way a unified action can be gained, without losing the aid of those who are in favor of all efforts against the evil of drink, yet are not so rigid personally as to be total abstainers. (6) The establishment of inebriate asylums, where the habitual drinker may be rescued.

The state should limit the consumption of whisky to the smallest quantity possible, by (1) the lessening of production and the imposing of a tax. From experience in Sweden, Norway, Finland, Switzerland, and France this has lessened the so-called small house distilleries, which have been one of the greatest causes of house drunkenness; here whisky is made for local consumption, and, on account of primitive methods, is of very bad quality. (2) As to the extreme measure of prohibition, it can not be carried out in thickly populated states, where the intemperance of the people is really great, and it is not necessary where drunkenness is not extensive among the people. (3) A high tax on whisky. The consumption of alcohol increases in proportion to the cheapness of whisky. (4) A moderate tax on the lighter alcoholic drinks. Beer is the greatest enemy of whisky; it must, therefore, be of good quality and not dear, but strong alcoholic beers should be taxed very high: coffee, tea, chocolate, and all necessary articles of food should be made cheap and of good quality. (5) A lessening of the number of licensed places. The need for whisky is not a natural one, but artificial. To increase the saloons increases the number of drinkers. The whisky trade does not follow the law of supply and demand, but rather that of demand and supply. The easier it is for every individual to find whisky at all times, places, and prices the more he will drink until it becomes his unconquerable vice. The lessening the number of licensed places, in connection with a high tax on whisky or other strong drinks, is the best means that the state can employ for the control and repression of drunkenness, and it is in those lands in which political and industrial freedom is valued the most that the severest measures against the whisky business are undertaken.

t of the saloon keeper when he sells to persons already
inors not accompanied by relatives. (7) Inspection of
ie, both as to place and time of sale. The sale of whisky
hould be absolutely prohibited, because women with a
ink are here very easy victims.

on of public drunkenness by punishment of the drinker
in many countries, but with little success. Many things
n the interest of public order and well-being, and though
in themselves immoral, produce conditions which easily
ality, or are otherwise dangerous to society. Yet it is
permit saloons at every corner, and cheap whisky, and
drunkenness.

ainst the habitual drinker are: (1) Placing the drinker
nship. This course would not differ materially from
in case of the spendthrift and the insane. It would
ses of wife and family becoming paupers, and would not
e good of the drinker, but a warning to others. (2)
priate asylums. In the later stages of habitual drunken-
considerable number of cases of insanity, and the in-
the most different forms, as chronic mania, epileptic
ional insanity, general paralysis, and other phases of
nity. In other cases alcoholic excess is a symptom of a
ous system, where there was insanity before drinking
In the first stages of mania, melancholia, and general
are driven to the use of alcohol. Dipsomania is a form
d is periodic. Besides all these there are a number of
e border line between health and disease, who, on account
rited mental weakness, and consequent irritableness
ork, are given to alcoholic excesses. There are a still
r of habitual drinkers who are not insane, but, through
alcohol, can not resist drinking; they reach such a degree
nd intellectual weakness, of irritability and stupidity,
customs and position, and mistrust and carelessness to-
ily, that it is a question whether they are not a common
ety. The number of these persons among those suffer-
ons alcoholism is by far the greatest; Gauster[1] says
he most dangerous, because their condition is latent and
pear suddenly. Should such drinkers be left to go free

LITERATURE.

[illegible] Leipzig, 1887 pp 24.

s author of one of the best books on physiological and
hetics, and what he says as to this side of a mooted
ves careful reading.

The alcoholic question is above all a physiological one. We know that alcohol is consumed in our body, that it is a source of living force; but it does not follow that it is food until this power is shown to aid the working of normal functions. We do not know whether the muscular fibers and nerve cells can utilize alcohol as a source of power. Alcohol lessens the heat of the body by working an enlargement of the blood vessels in the skin, in consequence of which more warm blood flows through the cold surface and more heat is given out. The enlargement of the blood vessels comes in this way: In the walls of the blood vessels there are small ring muscles which are in constant contraction. The cause of this contraction comes from certain nerve fibers which run to the ring muscles, and they all have a common center in the brain. Alcohol paralyzes this center; the nerve irritation ceases, the ring muscles relax, the blood vessels are widened, and the skin becomes richer in blood (recognized by the color). The reddening of the cheeks after drinking wine, which is the effect of alcohol, is a pathological phenomenon. The ordinary man says alcohol warms him in cold weather. This is a self-deception; he feels simply the warm blood streaming out to the skin in greater quantities. As a matter of fact he loses heat. The deception comes perhaps in this way: the brain centers which mediate the feeling of cold are stupified by paralysis. In general it can be proven *that all effects of alcohol which are generally designated excitation are in reality only paralytic phenomena.* The psychical effects are especially so. The brain function, which is first weakened, is the clear judgment or critical faculty. In consequence the emotional life prevails, freed from the chains of criticism; the man becomes open hearted and careless. But above all the paralytic effect of alcohol shows itself in this, that every feeling of discomfort and pain is benumbed, and especially the bitterest pains, the psychical ones, as sorrow and anxiety, wherefore the merry feelings in a drinking company. A man never becomes clever through drink. This widespread prejudice is also a deception; it is likewise a symptom of brain paralysis, where, as self-criticism sinks, self-sufficiency rises and self-control is lost.

He who becomes accustomed to take alcohol regularly is in fact better capable of working than if alcohol was suddenly taken away from him. But this is the case also with other poisons. When morphine is taken away from the morphine eater he can not work, sleep, nor eat. He is "strengthened" through morphine. But he who is not accustomed to narcotics is not made more capable of work through narcotics.

But of still more weight are the thousands of experiments that occur in the case of soldiers; that in war, in peace, in all climates, all hardships of the most wearisome marches are best endured when the soldier abstains wholly from all alcoholic drinks. These facts were verified in the English armies in Caffraria, West Africa, Canada, and

lditional verification is the fact that thousands of llowed to touch a drop of alcohol on board, and this in ate, and especially in polar regions. Most whale-fishers ners. That which is true of bodily exertion is as true *ohol strengthens no one; it simply benumbs the feeling of* ror of poor people in this regard is especially unfortu- end much for alcoholic drinks to strengthen them in- rich and salutary food. The advocate of beer claims tions. True, beer contains a considerable quantity of lextrin, and sugar. But there is a surplus of this in nd there is no reason also why it should be taken in a n. It is claimed that beer and wine aid digestion, but ts have been made on animals and men, and especially aid of the stomach pump, which show that moderate d wine lengthen the time of digestion and disturb it. ions on persons with stomach fistula likewise indicate

edicine is a mild anaesthetic; it should only be used for but never for chronic troubles, for the same reason that hloral hydrate should not be employed.

because of the good taste of liquor and not for its ste is made perverse in this way: the appetite tends wards meat: sugar ripe fruits and sweet food in general o the drinker. Physiology has established that sugar is uscular force. When the sweet is no more agreeable to abnormal condition. A drinker finds himself in this he is a drinker, who does not feel himself at ease unless ine, or alcohol in any form.

all be done against the evil of drink, there are those l to force, for this does not make men more moral or t; motives remain on the average the same, good and should be left to struggle for their existence, the stupid he wise will survive; this is the only rational progress. of the world testimes against this view. Those who dmit that a people, just as an individual, can not be wi out force. Otherwise why has the state the right nals? If it has this right, it has also the right to pre he sale of morphine is forbidden in all states. Here in ual is protected by the power of the state against his It is noteworthy that many physicians fall to the since they are the only ones who can obtain the poison y are the only ones whose well being the restriction of ot on sale. It is quite evident here that intelligence men, for to them it seems to meet the injury of the morphine physicians. It is not forbidden by the state, but is this of the drug. The moderate gambler, who is cautious, ve gambling places lively, but few men are so foolish as

to lose their reason and go under, and bring suffering upon their family and friends, why, let them succumb. What is that to me? This is really the standpoint that many take in regard to the liquor question.

Ueber Trunksucht und deren schädliche Folgen für das Gehirn und das Nervensystem, von WILH. SOMMER, Dr. med. Königsberg, 1888. pp. 50.

Among all peoples, and at all times, men have had a tendency to hide their anxieties and troubles by means of some exciting and cheering stimulation. Many things have been used, but nothing has become so universal as alcohol. The inhabitant of the modern civilized state needs much more alcohol for his personal use than the citizen of the last ten, twenty, or forty years.

Alcohol is isolated by distillation and is diluted and mixed with aromatic matters for the purpose of making the drink taste well, and for health, but this last is never reached, and is only a cover.

Alcohol works upon the central nervous system in an invariable way; taken in moderate quantities, it gives rise first to a subjective well-being; a pleasant feeling of heat goes through the whole body; feelings of cold, weakness, fatigue, and anxiety vanish. These feelings decrease according as the alcohol is decomposed in the body and cast out, and give place to a very positive, uncomfortable feeling, which makes again all the more sensitive the general enervation, for the avoiding of which the alcohol was drunken.

The most obvious effect of alcohol on the motor nerves is the trembling; its intensity and strength are proportional to the duration and gravity of the drunkenness, the highest degrees occurring in the drinkers of whisky. The tremor alcoholicus generally commences in the fingers and hand, then follow the small muscles of the face, and the tongue. Spontaneous convulsions of single bundles of fibers in a muscle are frequent. To determine the characteristic tremor, the patient's arm is stretched forward and the fingers forcibly spread apart and in this position the tremor is always distinct in the case of the drinker.

The cause of the affections of the sensor nerves should be referred to the peripheral and not to the central disturbances; yet here, as in the motor nerves, secondary degenerations of the central organ may occasionally be connected with the primary lesions of the nerves. The most frequent disturbances are in the sense of feeling. There is hyperaesthesia, anaesthesia, and paraesthesia, in most varied combinations and degrees of intensity. Here belongs headache, then piercing pains, taking exactly the course of the large nerves, especially in the forearm and the lower part of the thigh; then diffuse pains, light boring or heavy pressure. There are characteristic tactile impressions from hyperaesthesia, thus the hair of the head may be so sensible as to be painful when touched. In paraesthesia the feeling is uncomfortable rather than painful, as the feeling of the rubbing or crawling of insects.

the feeling of touch, temperature and pain can be almost

the vasomotor nerves are frequent; there is a peculiar
the nutrition of the skin. The skin, especially in places
th clothes, as the face, which is thickened, bloated, blue-
interwoven with the "ectatistic" vessels, which are
nded and surcharged that they are visible to the un-
so slight bleeding can take place on the nose, cheeks, in
mbrane of the lips and nose, in the conjunctiva, etc.
affections in chronic alcoholism are due in general to a
s, which can develop from initial hyperæmic conditions
xuriance of conjunctive tissue, and which in a later
the interstitial new formations reach degeneration and
medullary sheaths, and finally also of the cylinder axes.
alcoholic excess gives rise to striking phenomena in the
easily explained that chronic alcoholism should injure
ions. But the anatomical foundation of these disturb-
nown in all cases; the pathology of the brain is yet a
ut, as far as our knowledge goes, the alteration of the
ph circulation, under the influence of alcohol, comes to
yperæmia of the brain, and especially of its investing
ich perform for the most part the work for the nutrient
cortex. In consequence of the continual overfilling of
l of their walls, through local irritation of the circulat
ere is fatty degeneration of the "endotalia" and of the
to atheromatic process with wearing away and dilatation:
mmatory pachymeningitic stratifications and new forma
, which in turn can cause bleeding and its consequent
come atrophy and hydrocephalus; with it are to be ob
tial and sclerotic processes. In general, the same alter-
ike manner develop in other organs under the influence

[illegible] Nicolò Colajanni. Ca
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[illegible] Comparing the first
[illegible] there is everywhere a perfect par-
[illegible] the increase of alcoholism and that of crime and

suicide; but the increase of crime is for the most part apparent, while that of suicide is real, continuous, and without numerous oscillations, which characterize the increase of alcoholism and crime. On this account alcoholism increases in the inferior classes; suicide in the cultured classes. A slight increase in consumption of alcohol often corresponds to a large increase in crime, and *vice versa*. The maximum or minimum of alcoholism does not correspond once with the maximum or minimum of crime and suicide. Alcoholic intoxication makes the sentiments of man neither worse nor better; but it lets them loose, it accents them, it reveals them in their naked truth. Well established cases of insane or criminal descendants through alcoholism do not authorize one to generalize this fact. There is wanting between alcoholism, crime, and suicide constancy, regularity, and universality of relation, of coincidence, and of succession; therefore the relation of cause and effect can not be established between them, according to the laws of statistics.

Among the more authoritative writers, the opinion prevails that alcoholic beverages which are concentrated or of bad quality injure the physical and moral health, but that the consumption of wine (the most innocent of alcoholic beverages), day by day and year by year, can not be shown to be a true and efficient cause of crime. The conditions that favor the increase of alcoholism are physical, economical, and psycho social. Climate is the most important cause of all and is constant and independent of human action.

All physiologists recognize that alcohol increases the circulation, excites the intellectual faculties, and aids and stimulates the action of the digestive organs, and that it produces these beneficial effects in the shortest time, and with the least cost. An inquiry into the conditions that favor or determine alcoholism admits of but one conclusion: that in its morbid conditions it is a product of the social organization. When this organization is opportune and conformable to equity it is more beneficial than the influence of climate. The principal remedy for drunkenness is of an economical and social order. We must interest the laborer in organizing his work better; we must favor for each family the possession, first of movables, and then of a habitation; we must multiply indefinitely artistic distractions and encourage intellectual recreations.

On the whole this author represents the opinion of Europe as to alcoholism. It seems to us, however, that the question may be somewhat different in America. For one of the most apparent and real differences is the fastness of growth, which has become rooted in the American nature. Thus as a nation we walk, run, travel, eat, and drink faster than the Europeans. This drinking fast and often, without eating, and often when not thirsty, together with the unfortunate habit of treating, are conditions in our social organism which make so much more drunkenness visible.

the action of Alcohol on the Brain. J. J. RIDGE, Physician to the rance Hospital. Quarterly Journal of Inebriety, January, 1880.

an not become general in use without injuring the race. e narcotics habitually used so alters the nervous system easy sensations when abstained from. Alcohol is no is rule. Insurance societies are proving what the influ- l on the race is. As to the individual, it has been shown per that the sense of sight, common sensations, and the are blunted by alcohol in doses from 2 to 4 drachms. Jackson agrees that those powers of mind developed st stable and the first to be paralyzed by alcohol. Dr. series of experiments has shown that alcohol prolongs ction time, and the time for discrimination and decision. e influence of alcohol upon the psychical processes makes he individual believes them to be much quicker. This most rationally the necessity for abstinence. Alcohol, he capacity for self-control or temperance, which can not complete with alcohol as without it.

ale sur l'Alcoholism, par le Dr. VICTOR VÉTAULT. Paris, 1887. pp. 237.

f fermented drinks reaches far into history. But it is in thirty years that the tendency to excess has increased, proportions that one has the right to consider it a real It pushes man to suicide, theft, and homicide—crimes in direct proportion to the consumption of alcohol. It of medicine which has shown the great influence that in the development of crime. Although the form of the with each country, its nature and effects are everywhere . Formerly it was a simple tendency, which was satis lly, but now it is a habit—an imperial and irresistible

fixed rule, no solid criterion, to determine the responsi olics. Thus, a man arrested for a crime is a drinker by three days after his arrest he is suddenly taken with bacute attack of alcoholism. The judge sees only the of delirium; he thinks it is a case of insanity; he calls raises the question of responsibility. Here there is no imprisonment, the emotions it causes, the consequent moral depression, have put the prisoner in a condition hat of a drinker; attacked with a traumatism or an acute . The attack of *delirium tremens* is an accident; the of the prisoner prior to the attack is complete. The commercial house is charged with making fraudulent e judge receives a certificate, delivered in good faith by giving the exact dates of three attacks of delirium within wo years; he concludes that mental trouble is the cause,

and that the accused is irresponsible. But the errors in the accounts are not contemporary with the alcoholic attacks; but the man is in full possession of himself at other times, and his responsibility rests also; and so it is with the criminal who, lacking determination, seeks alcoholic excitation to carry out his crime. At the moment of execution his volition is feeble. There is no pity for one who resorts to such a method.

A laborer commences his day in a saloon, drinks much, goes to his work, but he can not work, his thirst burns, so he returns to the saloon, passes the day and evening; becomes quarrelsome, is aggressive; the saloon keeper puts him out; the drunkard goes away; he stumbles and falls in the street. In his fall a knife drops out of his pocket; he picks it up and, without premeditation, by accident, he retraces his steps, stops in front of the saloon where he was put out; the doors are closed; he knocks, he calls, no one responds; then, with the tenacity of a drunkard, he is obstinate and struggles against the obstacle; redoubles his efforts; the saloon-keeper comes down and opens the door and invites him to go away.

He advances, there is a slight struggle, a cry, and the saloon keeper falls, stabbed in the heart. This drunkard is responsible. Another has spent his own and his wife's money; she has been compelled to leave him on account of his bad habits, seeking refuge with her mother. But she works and gives her husband a little money every day, but he does not find it enough; he quarrels, he threatens. His wife obtains permission of him to leave two objects at the pawnbrokers in order to pay the rent. He reflects, goes to the pawnbrokers to see if the objects are there; unfortunately his wife had not had time to bring them there. He sees in this a subterfuge and will avenge himself. He cooly sharpens the blade of his knife, waits for the return of his wife, talking with his neighbors in the meantime. She arrives; he orders her to come and live with him; she refuses, and he kills her with the knife. This man had fifteen years previously a convulsive epileptic attack. He was then 19 years of age; at this time he drank enormously. A curious pathological fact was that his other attacks, separated by long intervals, returned when he was in the midst of his drunkenness. For a year before his crime he had not had an attack. His impulsion was not irresistible; he is responsible. In brief, responsibility is zero whenever the crime belongs to the period of acute or subacute delirium of the alcoholic attack. It is zero, also, when the subject is a chronic alcoholic, in whom definite cerebral lesions have affected the integrity of the brain. Responsibility is lessened in individuals of feeble intelligence, in whom tolerance for alcoholic drinks has diminished on account of the conditions of the inferiority of their cerebral organization. It does not disappear entirely where the individuals know that they can not drink without danger. The responsibility is lessened when it can be shown that the individual was involuntarily surprised by drunk-

onsibility exists fully in simple drunkenness, where the
l the power of avoiding this condition, and where it is
the purpose of committing crime.

le Dr. E. Monin, précédé d'une préface par le Dr. Dujardin-Beaumetz. Paris, 1889. pp. 308.

h Temperance Society," founded to combat the abuse of
s, has singled out this work as of special merit.
at in proportion as civilization perfects itself man seeks
s a compensation and a forgetfulness of his weariness
hich result from his daily struggle for existence. A man
excess in drink can not be a prudent father, a good
re soldier.
eason for popularizing the question of alcoholism is to
eneral the best manner of avoiding it. The method is
ient Greeks, who exhibited to their children the drunken
r to disgust them. It is to picture the alcoholic plague
isting especially on the less known sides of this medico-
n. (1) Acute alcoholism is drunkenness. Under this
d delirium tremens, because on the whole it is an acute
of alcoholic poisoning. (2) Chronic alcoholism consists
e inhibition, in a slow storing of the poison in the tissues.
a form of mental alienation, a partial delirium, where the
e mercy of paroxismal attacks which push with irresist-
e abuse of alcohol; the patient is alternately a subject
and excitation; his insanity takes the form called "cir-
drunkard drinks when he finds occasion. The alcoholic
use he drinks. The dipsomaniac drinks because he is
runkard likes to drink, while the dipsomaniac drinks in
f. The alcoholic is vicious and degraded; the dipso-
e and diseased.
s has always been considered a plague. As to remedies,
e goes to the extreme of denying the utility of alcohol in
establishment of coffee and tea houses, and places for
emonade, render real service to the cause of temperance.
little known in the torrid zone on account of the large
f coffee. Some have gone so far as to advocate destroy-
rds, but these would only increase the consumption of arti
whisky. Alcohol is no doubt too largely prescribed for
t, the children and for nervous women, whose taste

s should tend to favor the fermented drinks as compared
ed. The example of Sweden and Holland in establish-
se should be followed. Beer should be encouraged to
sumption of whisky. There should be restaurants for
e they do not find whisky, but meat, good beer, milk.
While the laborer through lack of foresight and feeble-

ness of will and self-love follows his comrades to the gin-shop, yet it should be remembered that whisky becomes a cheap agent for him who must work hard, with insufficient food. The taxes on consumption, which weigh heavily on workmen, should be lowered. Meat, wine, beer, and all the necessary commodities, should be rendered cheap. Then this passion for alcohol will find an end. The origin of this passion, according to physiology, is found often in a more or less conscious need of the organism, to which the most moral ideas of duty and abnegation give pain, but without effect. A large place should be given to popular instruction, the multiplication of savings banks, associations for mutual aid which excite dignity and self-respect, to temperance societies, economic and philanthropic restaurants, and workmen's circles. These are all barriers; for the majority of such associations increase the consumption of agreeable and healthy drinks, which are the antagonists and antidotes of drunkenness. The schools can be made one of the best means for propagating antialcoholism, not only through reading lessons, etc., but by excursions into the prisons and almshouses. Example makes the strongest impression upon the brain of the child. For the adults popular conferences and brochures should be multiplied. The laborer drinks to forget the existence of his pariah. Render him happy, increase his wages, diminish his hours of labor, in this way lessen the miseries of life, and alcoholism will lessen. Some labor requires a great deal of force and exposure to heat or cold; this favors alcoholism; here exciting but inoffensive drinks should replace distilled or fermented drinks of bad quality. Those given to intellectual life should resist this stimulus; for their feeble muscular exercise, and the small activity of chest and skin, utilize very insufficiently the ingested poison.

Legislation has little power to suppress alcoholism, except when it is used against falsification of liquors. The laws against alcohol are of little practical value, for, the people rightly say, that they are directed against them, while the rich, filled with their fine wines, wish to take away from the poor, alcohol, their unique drink. A pressing need is to unvail the numerous frauds in wine, to avoid the mixing of fermented and distilled drinks. Liquors should be prepared by infusion, or maceration, or distillation, and not by solution of doubtful essences in more or ess poisonous alcohols. Alcoholism is special to countries where the alcohols of industry are drank, and it varies inversely as the consumption of wine.

L'Alcool, Physiologie, Pathologie, Medecine Légale, par le Dr. J. A. Peeters. Paris, Bruxelles 1885. pp. 115.

This book was written in response to the following question, given by the Royal Academy of Medicine of Belgium, to determine, by precise observations, the physical and psychical effects of alcoholism on the individual and his descendents.

xamines the physiological action of alcohol, which gives
anation of its pathological action; he considers physical
he healthy, the sick, and the wounded, then psychical
e healthy, in those predisposed, and in the insane; then
holism, and its effects on individuals, peoples, and races.
on of alcohol appears to commence in the bucal cavity,
of the stomach is the main seat. Where large quanti-
introduced, part goes into the intestines. It is by the
larger quantity of alcohol penetrates into the circula-
ed that the chyliferous vessels receive a part of it. In
ns alcohol favors the vegetative processes in wounds in
the tissues; its action is manifested by a hyporgenesis
tive tissue. Its action is less marked on the mucous

ssing into the digestive tube produces a warm pricking
h propagates itself from the mouth to the pharynx and
centrated or large quantities of alcohol acts as an irri-
nach; this action is much more energetic if the stomach
is case diluted alcohol is injurious because it acts directly
vessels, exciting a viscus, when stimulation has no use,
ood in the stomach, a moderate dose is still more diluted
th the ingesta and secretions; here it is not an irritant,
of the digestive functions. It is absorbed especially in
the duodenum and in the beginning of the intestine,
taken is large enough. It penetrates the blood either
veins or by the chyliferous vessels.
es an acceleration of the heart beats followed by a cor-
rease, in such a manner that when the doses have been
e and not repeated, the average pulse within the twenty-
s without change. Large doses diminish the frequence
the heart beats. The simple physiological influence of
les that of the influence of age. The functions at first
feebled by an inevitable reaction; muscular forces are
ne and carbonic acid are excreted in less quantity and
e of the body is lowered. Alcohol does not remain long
n. The kidneys are a constant source of elimination of
antity eliminated from the lungs is very little; the skin
nt source of elimination, producing a dilatation of the
els, so that a larger quantity of blood is carried to the
insensible transpiration is increased. From the phys
to the pathological is only a step, and special circum
nder the former dangerous. Temperance is a lure; total
ecessary; these are conclusions to which we are almost
ne.
ological side, alcohol produces functional troubles, such
uantitative and qualitative alterations of the secretions.

nervous disorders, exaggerated development of conjunctive tissue, sclerosis, accumulation of fat between the constituent elements of the organs and a fatty degeneration.

Sverigen Officiela Statistik. Bränvins Tillverkning och Försäljning samt Hvitbetssockertillverkningen, IX., 1886–1887 och 1887–1888. Stockholm, 1889. pp. 40.

This is an official statement of the manufacture and sale of whisky in Sweden; it is almost wholly statistical in character, and is interesting in giving a large number of minute details. In 1888 the tax for the manufacture of whisky was raised from 40 öre (about 11 cents) a litre to 50 öre. Where the manufacture was less than 500 liters or more than 5,000 per day there is a special extra tax of 10 öre. The report has special reference to the following two years, in which the total manufacture was, from October 1, 1886, to October 1, 1887, 37,394,093 liters, at 50 per cent, and from October 1, 1887, to October 1, 1888, 32,900,078 liters at 50 per cent.

The crude matters employed were as follows: 1886–87, 18,339,906 kilos of cereals and 1,504,348 hectoliters of potatoes.

Les Degustateurs en Gironde et L'Alcoolism Professionel, par le Dr. P. HENRI MOULINIÉ. Bordeaux, 1887. pp. 46.

The tasters, by profession, of wine and whisky are not exposed to the disorders of alcoholism, nor to cerebral alcoholism, in spite of their life and frequent excesses at table. The pathology of tasters can be summed up in this, that they are specially subject to diabetes, gout, and apoplexy; this is due as much to their mode of existence as to their profession.

De L'Alcoolism dans La Seine-Inférieure, par A. LOUIS A. TOURDOT. Paris, 1886. pp. 126.

The purpose of the author is to seek for the causes of drunkenness and the nature and quantity of the liquor consumed in the region of the Lower Seine; to study the classes of individuals and the remedy for the evil. The following are some of the conclusions:

(1) The habits of the country are very defective hygienically, where whisky is taken early in the morning; coffee serves here as a vehicle to whisky. Through the ignorance of parents children are given fermented drinks from birth, and the quantity increases with age. This augments their mortality and forms habits which later predispose to drunkenness.

(2) The laborers of both sexes in the country, and especially in the villages, do not have sufficient food, because a large part of their wages which buy food is used to buy whisky.

(3) Alcoholism in a certain class of individuals, as machinists, firemen, employés of the railroad, presents dangers very serious for society.

uency of holidays, meetings, etc., is an occasion for
s. In the majority of the saloons the liquors are of bad
oduce a dangerous and brutal drunkenness, which leads
nic alcoholism.
of tobacco, vegetables, or objects of indispensable con-
e saloons is a serious cause of alcoholic excess among

ons are too numerous in proportion to the population.
half of the cases of insanity among men alcohol is an

ires should only tolerate the usage of wine or, in case of
s well rectified; they should favor the usage of naturally
ks, as wine, cider, beer, and execute rigorously the laws
nness, oppose the opening of new saloons, and spread
ledge as between usage and abuse of drink, and especi-
xtreme injury to children.

oliques et leurs Effets Sociaux en Belgique, par EM. CAUDERLIER. Bruxelles, 1883. pp. 60.

ort based upon official statistics of Belgium. The facts
show that public education is somewhat inefficacious in
e the sale of intoxicating liquors is without control and
t suicide, insanity, criminality, and pauperism increase
the consumption of alcohol.
tion, the repressive mode is essentially inefficacious. As
ommon opinion that alcohol sustains, fortifies, protects
gainst epidemics, aids digestion, etc., it will perhaps be
ce some declarations of physicians and hygienists, chiefs
lar navigators, etc.
f professors [illegible] of the faculties of medicine at Leyden,
roningen, and Utrecht agreed to the following declara-
even the moderate use of spirituous liquors is injurious;
t favor digestion; it can provoke the feeling of hunger
ut not augment the digestive forces. (2) They are not
essary to cold or heat, nor are they without danger.
ws that they do not aid those who are exposed to damp
k in [illegible] or those whose food is insufficient.
of alcoholic drinks has precisely the contrary effect
pinion [illegible] to them. (3) In all diseases, especially
the [illegible] fevers, cholera, those who habit-
rs [illegible] of resistance. (4) Alcoholic drinks
now [illegible] popular, but they are destructive
[illegible] and natural development of the
[illegible] physicians are: Alcohol is no more a food
n, [illegible] Alcohol is no more a food
[illegible] As a result of twenty years of
the [illegible] it has been found that

the use of alcohol, even in moderate quantities, has an injurious influence in the most painful and serious affections; it is the greatest agent of physical and moral disorders; it diminishes cerebral power much more than is supposed (Sir Henry Thompson). It is remarkable that all the evils coming from alcoholism can pass from father to son, even to the third generation, and they become worse if the use of alcohol is continued, until they result in sterility (Darwin).

Contributions à l'Étude de la Descendance des Alcooliques, par le Dr. L. GRENIER. Paris, 1887. pp. 96.

Alcohol has come to be a social question. It is one of the most active agents in the degeneracy of races. The indelible effects produced by heredity are not to be remedied. Alcoholic descendants are often inferior beings, a notable proportion coming under the categories of idiots, imbeciles, and debilitated. The morbid influence of parents is maximum when conception has taken place at the time of drunkenness of one or of both parties. Those with hereditary alcoholism show a tendency to excess; half of them become alcoholics. A large number of cases of neurosis have their principal cause in alcoholic antecedents. The larger part of the sons of alcoholics have convulsions in early infancy. Epilepsy is almost characteristic of the alcoholism of parents, when it is not a reproduction in them, or when it is not an index of a nervous disposition of the whole family. The alcoholic delirium is more frequent in the descendants of alcoholics than in their parents, which indicates their intellectual degeneration.

The crude matters employed in the manufacture were, in 1887–'88, 9,484,573 kilos of cereals and 1,628,991 hectoliters of potatoes.

The law in force for the sale of whisky dates from May 29, 1885. Licenses for the retail sale of whisky under 250 liters are either permanent and accorded for a definite time, or temporary—for less than a year. The cost of each retail license depends upon the presumable quantity that can be sold by the establishment. There was one license to every 884 inhabitants in the cities and villages, and one to every 18,297 in the country. The manufacture of whisky from beet-root sugar has not been a success except in one manufactory, where lately great progress has been made, so that new ones have started into activity.

Constitutional Prohibition the Best Remedy for the Drink Evil of Modern Times, by Rev. G. H. PARSHLEY. Gilbertsville, N. Y., 1889. pp. 48.

The author desires to show by the opinions of leading representatives of the professional and public life of Kansas (the first State to adopt and try this new policy), that constitutional prohibition is the best remedy. Letters of inquiry were addressed to prominent men, and sixty-eight replies were received. These letters began substantially as follows: Very diverse and conflicting reports reach us concerning the operation of prohibition in your State. To resolve, in a measure at least, the doubt hanging over this question in the East, we propose a

ste. These letters contained the following questions: rohibition policy of your State broken up the organized xicants used as a beverage? This being the case, (2) to as it diminished their consumption? (3) What use is now oney formerly spent for drink? (4) Has this policy proved nefit? (5) Has it improved the public morals? (6) Is it to enforce a prohibitory than a license law or criminal al? (7) Do you know of persons opposed to prohibition 1880, who now favor it? (8) If resubmitted would the rity of 7,998 be increased or diminished? The author had nowledge of the views of the persons addressed except in The State of Kansas is larger than New England entire the size of New Jersey, and contains upwards of a million people. As a result of the answers received there seems on why prohibition could not be as successfully enforced th this possible exception, that Kansas has fewer large nany other States, although having at present 34 towns ons over 2,000, 6 ranging from 15,000 to 40,000, and one, a population of 50,000.

No. 1 there were sixty two replies in the affirmative and egative. There were sixty two replies to question 2, and exception all agree to a very great decrease—more than on an average. In general the answers to all the ques- th very few exceptions, favorable to constitutional pro-

[illegible] Dr. [illegible]. Revue [illegible] 1890

ent and cure temporary at least of one who has been a for fifteen years is a case in hypnotic therapeutics worthy on. We extract points from the writer's lecture. Patient robust, muscular, intelligent, successful in business; par l healthy. He learned to drink in the army, drinking wine sometimes in considerable quantity, but without drunken ving the army he exchanged whisky for absinthe; his ch revolved traveling, encouraged his drinking, but he [illegible] when at home. At last signs of physical ured, [illegible] hallucination, delusion of [illegible] returned every month or two [illegible] who scattered his good resolutions. [illegible] On May 3, 1888, he was hypnotized. [illegible] from liquors and tobacco were [illegible] successful. He was under treatment [illegible] suggestion being repeated [illegible] troubles were helped and his desire smoke removed. He found himself able to resist under

circumstances in which before he would have inevitably yielded. On May 15 he was pronounced cured and discharged. After thirteen days of treatment without isolation, continuing to walk the streets of Paris, he saw all his physical and mental troubles successively disappear, and his inveterate habit of drinking and smoking cease.

Hérédité et alcoolisme. Dr. LEGRAIN. Revue de l'hypnotisme, 1er Mars, 1890.

There are three main characteristics in alcoholism: The mental state, the impulsions, and the tendency to delirium at the slightest cause. The degenerate are more susceptible than those who are of well-balanced mind. Alcoholic delirium differs in its symptoms from that of drinkers with no defects. In hereditary cases drunkenness comes in a short time; once started, it assumes forms which recall its nature and predisposition. Alcoholic delirium of the predisposed does not resemble that of the stereotyped delirium. The rigors of intoxication and the rigors of hereditary predisposition have a certain independence. The slowness of evolution, frequence of relapsing, feebleness of mental faculties and polymorphism of delirium characterize the alcoholism of the degenerate. Inveterate abuse of drinking in nonhereditarily disposed persons creates a degeneracy like the hereditary. Organic physical resistance diminishes as excess increases. Alcohol causes its special delirium; little by little it simply plays the rôle of an *appoint.* In a large number of cases the man is not free not to drink.

La responsabilité des alcooliques. M. MOTET. Revue de l'hypnotisme, 1er août, 1889.

There is no fixed jurisprudence in France as to responsibility in alcoholism. In civil matters alone, when drunkenness of the contracting party has been established at the time of the contract, the contract is annulled. Drunkenness has in these conditions been made like to a state of dementia. One class comprehends simple drunkenness, accidental or provoked, and in some cases premeditated. To this class belong drinkers by habit, who, without showing the troubles characteristic of drunkenness, are always under the influence of alcohol. A second class concerns all forms of pathological drunkenness, partially acute or acute mental troubles, or chronic troubles due to intoxication. In this class are the insane, imbecile, epileptic, whom alcoholic excess can lead to the most dangerous acts, by awakening impulsive tendencies which otherwise would not be awakened. Drunkenness is punishable as well as crime committed under its influence when the delinquent has the power to avoid it, when the alcoholic excitation has been sought in order to give one enough determination to commit a crime. Drunkenness is punishable in an attenuated degree in cases of feeble intelligence, in which intolerance for liquor is shown by an inferior cerebral organization; they are not excusable when they know they can not drink without danger; such cases are more numerous than is generally supposed. Crimes can not be punished if committed during an acute or

od of delirium in an alcoholic paroxysm. It is also the
e alcoholism. When cerebral lesions have affected the in-
organ, the individual should be put under treatment.

e Doctor in Relation to the Dipsomaniac, by DR. DANIEL CLARK. To-
ronto, 1888. pp. 20.

brings out clearly the sociological side of alcoholism,
the state is responsible for many of its drunkards. He
ctical and suggestive prophylaxis. There are four classes
(1) Those who drink from a habit of tippling; (2) those
relieve nervous prostration, or to drown sorrow or wrong;
drink from hereditary tendency; (4) traumatic drunkards.
re usually of three kinds: (*a*) The weak-willed; (*b*) the
mean-souled man who delights to "sponge" on others.
come drunkards by nightly potations to relieve mental
ore numerous than supposed. This drunkenness has no
and the habit may go on without being noticed for years.
drunkard will take a small dose in the morning to throw
ity of the nightly debauch and to appear as usual before
ut this has its limits, and paralysis, apoplexy, or insanity
This class usually belongs to our active members of society.
stupefactions are more fatal to mental integrity than any
drinking. In heredity it is the nervous bias which is
which can be aroused suddenly or may lie latent for years.
s come intermittently like the periodic insanities. The
may be overcome by daily battles, but not by isolated
s of this class have an unusually nervous condition, irreg-
n, low nutrition, morbid fears, irritable temper, lack of
eign to the individual in health; even misconceptions
may supervene when the attack is coming on. During
drinking mania the man is uncontrollable. We may
n the large number of defectives in society those who
f they would only try, but yet a large number remain on
ence, social or religious, has any effect. There is no help
enforced restraint in special asylums, where they can have
nsement, and homelike treatment. These should be as
as possible, and the state should provide them. The
ently is not averse to prohibition, and, should that fail,
the revenue from licenses devoted to the care of the

MORPHINISM.

[illegible] Paris, 1889. pp. 248.

wo divisions of poisons: those imposed upon man by the
stry, such as lead, mercury, sulphur of carbon, and those
arily by man on account of the pleasures they give, such
um, and hashisch. The abuse of morphine, which within

a few years has greatly increased, is generally limited to the upper classes. Thus it is rarely seen in the hospitals. Opium has always been employed to procure an agreeable drunkenness. Morphomania most always arises from the employment of it in injections to counteract pain, uneasiness, chagrin, or any neuropathic condition.

Morphomania is a vicious habit, bearing the relation to opium that dipsomania does to alcohol. Morphomania exists when the individual experiences an irresistible need of taking morphine. But dipsomania is an intermittent neurosis; the need to drink does not exist continually, and the disease is almost absolutely incurable, like the majority of neuroses where the crises return by attacks. Morphomania is, on the contrary, a constant neurosis; the patient always has the need of his stimulant, and for this reason alone it is a curable disease. It is thus that drunkards by profession can be cured, but dipsomaniacs never.

Patients become addicted to morphine (1) by seeking momentary relief from suffering by a means which becomes worse than the suffering; (2) through voluptuousness, that is, to experience a state of pleasure; (3) by calming their moral pains, or by trying to find force for their daily work. The morphomaniacs prefer the hypodermic method, first because the taste of morphine is disagreeable. Opium eaters have by long habit overcome this, but the majority of the Orientals prefer to smoke it, all the more because in this form the effects of the poison are less immediately injurious. Opium taken by the mouth acts directly on the stomach, and much more energetically than when administered by injections; by the stomach there is a loss of appetite, a feeling of heaviness in the epigastric region, nausea, and even vomiting. Ingested morphine takes much longer time to produce its action. By injection it acts immediately. Another reason why the patient prefers this method is that he takes an eager pleasure in making the punctures; thus many patients prefer to take the dose in small portions. It is a fact of practical importance that dilute injections are less painful than concentrated.

The first effects of the absorption of the poison are in general agreeable; this state can last for weeks, months, or even years, but the evil is done, the patient can not dispense with his poison. According to certain authors, the subjects predisposed to morphomania experience at the outset the need of renewing without cessation their punctures, a sign by which the predestined are recognized. The normal state of a morphomaniac is characterized by a paralysis of the will, a torpor of the ego, which is often the case with the insane, especially with those attacked with chronic alcoholism. The morphomaniac has not enough energy to leave off his habits. His memory and judgment do not appear to be seriously affected, but there is a remarkable attenuation of the moral sense, so that indelicate acts are committed, especially by omission. The Chinese join to their passion for opium that of gambling; after their money is gone they will play for their

children, and their own fingers. Another form of their
that of untruthfulness, especially as to their opium
do not claim to have abandoned their habit they will
he doses. What they say can not be trusted at all.
e delirium presents itself especially under the form of
th hallucinations of sight, which is the case of toxical
y sort. Often there are disagreeable odors, which must
rmanent cause than hallucinations. The hallucinations
e of alcoholism; in many there is a moral fear outside of
t some terrible evil is going to happen to them. Some
and have acute mania. Thus in the extreme Orient
oxysm of fury for having lost money at gambling rush
to kill the first person they meet. Vertigo is very
follows insomnia. The sense of touch is habitually
h other cases there is an anæsthesia. General nutri-
e troubles which result cause the patient to grow old
lling of the hair coincides with the destruction of the

ith lead produces no pleasure and its suppression no
It belongs to that class of poisons which are simply
t with poisons which are sought for the purpose of
ression or abstinence is quite different, for with many
become indispensable to existence. This is not only
morphine and alcohol but with coffee, tea, tobacco, and

t is a radical and brisk suppression of the poison. The
tient in a state of abstinence becomes animated, red;
of excitation and congestion predominate; the patient
le, quarrelsome, sees evil in everything; there is a vague
f the abstinence is continued the intellectual faculties
ous work becomes impossible. Hyperæsthesia is com-
pronounced in young patients. Respiration is greatly
is an irregularity in the rythm; circulation is enfeebled;
ation; there is sometimes syncope and collapse. If the
hed daily the same phenomena occur, but with less in-
morphomaniacs use coffee also; a larger number chloro-
ocaine, and especially alcoholic drinks. The nervous
e latter is most deeply vitiated.
ate suppression of morphine has the great advantage of
tient to suffer less. Once the crisis is passed the patient
he mania for morphine, for a new injection. But this
practicable except in an asylum. On the other hand
poses the patient to grave dangers, as delirium tremens,
d collapse. The gradual suppression is easier to prac-
an asylum.

Le Morphinisme, par Dr. G. Pichon. Paris, 1889. pp. 488.

The author takes up briefly the ordinary symptoms of morphinism, but states at length those that are not so well known.

For the last few years the sudden extension of the passion for morphine has become quite apparent. Morphine inebriety is at present penetrating into all classes. Out of 55 morphomaniacs of all degrees there were 37 due to therapeutics, and out of these 37 there were 34 due to medicine.

Out of 82 cases of men and 28 women studied by Levinstein comes the following table:

Men.	Number.	Women.	Number.
Physicians	32	Women physicians	8
Son of a physician	1	Nuns	2
Hospital attendants	2	Midwife	1
Student of medicine	1	Wife of a druggist	1
Apothecaries	6	Wife of an army officer	1
Army officers	18	Wives of merchants	5
Merchants	11	Income holders	4
Income-holders	3	Professors	2
Professor	1	Employees	4
Magistrates	4		
Landlords	3		

Besides the therapeutical cause of morphinism there is a large number of persons led to it by passion. There are the real morphin inebriates; they are attracted by natural temperament; they are the large class of the unknown voluptuous, those without equilibrium, the abnormal, the eccentric, the degenerate; hence the cause is purely passionate, as among the Chinese and Turks. There is a third class, who inject themselves at irregular times, who use morphine as a stimulant; if it is wanting, they take alcohol, coffee, etc. In acute intoxication, morphine produces ocular troubles, consisting in "scotôines," diminution of the visual field, and even complete amaurosis; but these are essentially temporary. In chronic intoxication, where morphinism has existed for a long time, these ocular troubles can become permanent. The principal ones are dicoloration of the pupillæ, which can go as far as progressive atrophy. When these affections are not from ocular lesions, they cease with the suppression of morphine.

There is between morphinism inebriety and alcoholism this essential difference, that the privation of morphine provokes a special state of need which is not found in alcoholism. In alcoholism there are terrible hallucinations of sight, of persecution, nocturnal crises, and various dyspeptic troubles. Morphinism rarely produces these psycho-sensorial troubles, except in the state of absence from morphine; the dyspeptic troubles are rather of a neuralgic nature, and do not cause lesions. The long intoxication by morphine causes rapid emaciation, yellow coloration of the face, and arrest of menstruation in woman. The two states of alcoholism and morphinism can coexist or alternate in the same individual.

by ether is accompanied with less grave symptoms than
The frequent use of ether develops a passion which
laily abuse, yet this passion to search for the stimulant is
, as in morphinism.

of privation the ether maniac does not have the anguish
charateristic in the morphomaniac, nor does one find
ctions which can succeed the suppression of morphine, as
rrhœa, hyperthermia, chill, and mortuous collapses and
mania can never be an excuse for a crime, and this is
ost all cases of morphomania.

ion of chloral, when continued for some time, develops a
loral, which is accompanied with a partially irresistible
ke it. There is in chloral a real state of need provoked
, but this state is not accompanied with as grave results
of morphine. The physical symptoms of chloralism,
appear to consist especially in gastrointestinal troubles;
mptoms consist in feebleness of mind. The mode of treat
in the progressive suppression of the poison. The mor-
maniacs have a sort of new hybrid affection, consisting in
of all the senses and various delirious conceptions. The
other elements with morphinism can lessen responsibility
s can cause complete irresponsibility. In cases of mor
a long intoxication can only lessen responsibility; this
the fact that morphinism is not a psychosis.

CHAPTER V.

INSANITY AND GENIUS.

Human beings may be classified, in a general way, into normal and abnormal. By "abnormal" is meant departure from the normal. While the term "abnormal" often suggests ethical or æsthetical characteristics, it is here employed with no such reference. Thus a great reformer and a great criminal are both abnormal in the sense of diverging much from the average or normal man. The principal and extreme forms of human abnormality are insanity, genius, and crime.[1] The third form, "crime," includes all excessive degrees of wrong.

Assuming the natural history point of view, man should be studied as we study all species below him. In an investigation, therefore, of insanity and genius we must, as far as possible, eliminate all those ethical and æsthetical ideas (however important) that we have been accustomed to associate with these terms. For an empirical study is concerned with facts rather than with sentiments, emotions, or ideals connected with such facts.

INSANITY.

Krafft-Ebing[2] defines insanity, from the anatomical point of view, as a diffuse disease of the brain, accompanied with nutritive, inflammatory, and degenerative changes. The division between mental and brain diseases is purely a practical one and not strictly scientific. Mental diseases are a special class of cerebral diseases, and from a clinical standpoint are distinguished by psycho-functional disturbances. Insanity is not only a disease of the brain but also a diseased alteration of the personality. One difficulty in distinguishing between sanity and insanity is due to the fact that the manifestations of one can correspond exactly to those of the other. The first symptoms are not generally intellectual, but emotional; there is abnormal irritability. The fluctuating line between sanity and insanity, as frequently seen in public and private life, can, says Krafft Ebing, oscillate between the

[1] The author treats of deeper forms of abnormality and crime in "Criminology," New York, 1893, and considers degenerative sexuality in another work entitled, "Formes Graves de la Criminalité," Paris et Lyon, 1893.

[2] Psychiatrie, 1890.

nius and mental disease. Such men show peculiarities
ling, and action: they are called strange or foolish be-
t majority of men feel or act otherwise. So their com-
eas are uncommon, new, striking, and often interesting;
t capable of making use of these new thoughts. Such
not yet insane, but still they are not quite right; they
ge over to insanity; they are on the threshold. They
e as to be said to have a strain of madness in them.
s this an "insane temperament;" it is characterized by
unstable condition of moral element, a tendency to sud-
act independently of the social organism, a personal
at seems to others a sign of great vanity. But they
d in their own impulses as not to be conscious of how
s. In Maudsley's opinion this predisposition to insanity
nius in some cases. Some persons having this insane
may be called mattoids, to use Lombroso's expression;
ngly peculiar, eccentric, and original, but generally in
they show disproportionate development; they are
y heredity to mental disease and may gradually develop
; thus one member of a family may show genius and
ane or epileptic. This may indicate an extreme sensi-
mily which under different conditions of life and body
rent forms. This extreme nervous sensibility may endow
genius, but not the highest genius, for it lacks the power
sense and the vast intelligence of the genius which
correct his wild imagination. The insane temperament
ity, but lacks the critical spirit; the ordinary normal
e critical spirit, but lacks originality; the genius pos-
ginality and critical power.

s that there are a number of examples of insane temper-
g from inspired idiots to inspired geniuses; that De
er, Turner, Shelley, Tasso, Lamb, and Goldsmith may be
ving had in some degree the insane temperament. Some
t in the highest degree impracticable and unwise in the
ense of the term. Another form of this temperament is
strated in spiritualism, thought reading, clairvoyancy
n. The pseudo-genius or mattoid is then one who has
perament with originality and particular talents in cer-
often displays a mixture of insanity and genius. In the
dsley, he desires to set the world "violently right;" un
ain he is impulsive and may be attacked with derange-
ker and much less important class of mattoids are the
y, with no capacity to look at self from an outside stand
elf-belittling gives widen into the family, but develops no

further. This class consider their oddities higher than the virtues of others. Another phase is illustrated by those who have little sympathy for their own kind; they often have extreme affection for some dog or cat, and suppose that they are exceedingly humanitarian because they love animals more than human beings.

Hammond[1] says that "the discrimination of the very highest flights of genius from insanity is a difficult and at times an impossible undertaking, for they may exist in one and the same person." Hammond also is of opinion that more people of great genius exhibit manifestations of insanity than do persons of ordinary mental faculties. He mentions as showing symptoms of insanity or at the close of life passing into fatuity, Tasso, Burns, Swift, Mozart, Hayden, Walter Scott, Blake, and Poe. Schüle[2] defines insanity as a disease of the person, resting upon and caused by a brain affection. Here it is to be understood, psychologically speaking, that a pathological symptom does not constitute the essence of a mental disturbance, be the thought ever so broken or the disposition or action ever so anomalous. Hallucination under certain conditions can appear temporarily, or superstition can come within the range of specific mental disease, and yet there is no insanity. In true mental disease the whole person must be included, so that in his thoughts, feelings, and actions he is no more determined by motives accessible to reflection and conclusion, but by irremovable feelings and ideas upon the Ego, which if called up exercise an incontestible superior power. It is the mental compulsion that constitutes the essence of mental derangement; the patient often stands under its power as a whole personality; at another time he is theoretical or reflective as to this force over him; but the distinctive point is, that he can not clear it away or overcome it through logic nor stop it by his will. This compulsion is grounded in a fundamental organic brain disease.

According to Arndt[3] our manner of knowing, feeling, and willing is differently developed, and shows itself in feeble or strong constitutions as nervousness, weakness, or insanity; or as gift, talent, or genius. Every mental disease is a reaction of the nervous system impaired in its nutrition, especially the nutrition of the brain. Arndt's idea is that when a nervous condition appears occasionally in parents and grandparents it sooner or later passes over into mental disease, as seen in children of aged parents born late, or in children of parents with talent or genius. In the first case (in children born late) this nervous condition develops with the decrease of vital energy; in the second case it comes from the nature of the higher endowment or genius. This endowment or genius is an expression of a highly organized nervous system, more particularly that of the brain. Thus it is that all higher

[1] Treatise on Insanity, New York, 1883.
[2] Klinische Psychiatrie.
[3] Lehrbuch der Psychiatrie.

The author examines the physiological action of alcohol, which gives the logical explanation of its pathological action; he considers physical alcoholism in the healthy, the sick, and the wounded, then psychical alcoholism in the healthy, in those predisposed, and in the insane; then hereditary alcoholism, and its effects on individuals, peoples, and races.

The absorption of alcohol appears to commence in the bucal cavity, but the mucous of the stomach is the main seat. Where large quantities have been introduced, part goes into the intestines. It is by the veins that the larger quantity of alcohol penetrates into the circulation; it is proved that the chyliferous vessels receive a part of it. In local applications alcohol favors the vegetative processes in wounds in the depths of the tissues; its action is manifested by a hyporgenesis of the conjunctive tissue. Its action is less marked on the mucous vessels.

Alcohol in passing into the digestive tube produces a warm pricking sensation, which propagates itself from the mouth to the pharynx and stomach. Concentrated or large quantities of alcohol acts as an irritant in the stomach; this action is much more energetic if the stomach is empty; in this case diluted alcohol is injurious because it acts directly on the mucous vessels, exciting a viscus, when stimulation has no use, but if there is food in the stomach, a moderate dose is still more diluted and mingles with the ingesta and secretions; here it is not an irritant, but a stimulant of the digestive functions. It is absorbed especially in the stomach, in the duodenum and in the beginning of the intestine, if the quantity taken is large enough. It penetrates the blood either directly by the veins or by the chyliferous vessels.

Alcohol causes an acceleration of the heart beats followed by a corresponding decrease, in such a manner that when the doses have been increased a little and not repeated, the average pulse within the twenty-four hours rests without change. Large doses diminish the frequence and energy of the heart beats. The simple physiological influence of alcohol resembles that of the influence of age. The functions at first excited are enfeebled by an inevitable reaction; muscular forces are diminished, urine and carbonic acid are excreted in less quantity and the temperature of the body is lowered. Alcohol does not remain long in the organism. The kidneys are a constant source of elimination of alcohol; the quantity eliminated from the lungs is very little; the skin is an important source of elimination, producing a dilatation of the periphical vessels, so that a larger quantity of blood is carried to the surface and the insensible transpiration is increased. From the physiological dose to the pathological is only a step, and special circumstances can render the former dangerous. Temperance is a lure; total abstinence is necessary; these are conclusions to which we are almost tempted to come.

On the pathological side, alcohol produces functional troubles, such as congestion, quantitative and qualitative alterations of the secretions,

iability which is the postulate of selection. I should think it that a large proportion of "genius sports" are likely to come physically and socially, and that the intensity of feeling, one of the conditions of what is commonly called genius, is ly liable to run into the fixed ideas which are at the bottom of h insanity.[1] Lombroso[2] says that from an anatomical and al study of men of genius, who are semi-insane, from an inves- of the pathological causes of their apparition, marks of which ost always left in their descendants, there arises the conception morbid degenerative nature of genius.

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emocritus[4] makes insanity an essential condition of poetry. derot[5] says: "Ah, how close the insane and the genius touch; they imprisoned and enchained; or, statues are raised to them." Vol- re says: "Heaven in forming us mixed our life with reason and in- ity; the elements of our imperfect being; they compose every man, y form his essence." Pascal says: "Extreme mind is close to ex- me insanity." Mirabeau affirms that common sense is the absence f too vivid passion; it marches by beaten paths, but genius never. nly men with great passions can be great. Cato[6] said before com- nitting suicide: "Since when have I shown signs of insanity?" Tasso said: "I am compelled to believe that my insanity is caused by drunk- enness and by love; for I know well that I drink too much." Cicero speaks of the *furor poeticus;* Horace of the *amabilis insania;* Lamar- tine of the mental disease called genius. Newton in a letter to Locke says that he passed some months without having a "consistency of mind." Chateaubriand says that his chief fault is weariness, disgust of everything, and perpetual doubt. Dryden says: "Great wit to madness is nearly allied." Lord Beaconsfield says: "I have some- times half believed, although the suspicion is mortifying, that there is only a step between his state who deeply indulges in imaginative

[1] Nisbet, The Insanity of Genius, London, 1891.
[2] L'Homme de Genie.
[3] Phaedo.
[4] Horace, ars Poetica.
[5] Dictionaire Encyclopedique.
[6] Plutarch.

enius, are very frequently subject to all kinds of dis-
, peculiarities, idiocyncrasies, and perversities. Arndt
amples among poets, Tasso, Lenau, Heinrich, von
, Gutzkow; among artists, Robert Schumann, Carl
scientists, Pascal, Frederic Sauvages, John Müller,
er; among statesmen and generals, Tiberius and the
ough. A large number of geniuses were the last of
mocritus, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Cæsar, Augustus,
lsus, Newton, Shakespeare, Leibnitz, Kant, Voltaire,
us, Frederick the Great, Napoleon, Linné, Cuvier,
r von Humboldt. The family of Schiller have died
members. This dying out of genius can only be ex-
g to Arndt by the weakness of their organizations and
peraesthesia. This also is an explanation of the fact
s and sisters of geniuses are often mediocre, and some-
ed.

GENIUS.

rs[1] holds that genius is the highest expression, the se
llectual activity, which is due to an over-excitation of
em, and in this sense is neurotic; that disease of the
is a hereditary condition, favoring the development of
faculties. He maintains, on the basis of biographical
g distinguished men one finds the largest number of
children of geniuses are inferior even to those of
ing to convulsions and cerebral diseases in infancy.
s isolated, it is a *summum* of nature's energy, after
ative forces are exhausted. Mental dynamism can not
genius, unless the organ of thought is in a condition
of an abnormal irritability, which is also favorable to
of hereditary insanity. When the mind reaches its
is in danger of falling into dementia. The cerebral
t men, from simple nervousness to normal perturbation,
if not necessary efforts of their organization. Lelut[2]
genius a nervous affection, a semimorbid state of the
bodies that genius and insanity are but different
bid susceptibilities or a want of balance in the cerebro-
"Wherever a man's life is at once sufficiently illustrious
th sufficient fullness he inevitably falls into the morbid
xley says: "Genius, to my mind, means innate capacity
ve the average mental level." From a biological point
l say that a "genius" among men stands in the same
por" among animals and plants, and is a product of

[1] [illegible]
[2] [illegible]
[3] The [illegible] London, 1891.

that variability which is the postulate of selection. I should think it probable that a large proportion of "genius sports" are likely to come to grief, physically and socially, and that the intensity of feeling, which is one of the conditions of what is commonly called genius, is especially liable to run into the fixed ideas which are at the bottom of so much insanity.[1] Lombroso[2] says that from an anatomical and biological study of men of genius, who are semi-insane, from an investigation of the pathological causes of their apparition, marks of which are almost always left in their descendants, there arises the conception of the morbid degenerative nature of genius.

While, then, some alienists hold that genius is a pathological condition of the nervous system, a hyperæsthesia, a nervous, or mental disease, others do not go so far; yet all seem to be agreed that the relation between insanity and genius is very close.

As an introduction to the biographical study of genius it will be interesting to give the opinions of geniuses themselves.

Aristotle says that under the influence of a congestion of the head there are persons who become poets, prophets, and sybils. Plato[3] affirms that delirium is not an evil but a great benefaction when it emanates from the divinity.

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[5] Dictionnaire Encyclopédique.
[6] Plutarch.

l insanity. I was not always sure of my identity or for I have found it necessary to shout aloud to be sure Schopenhauer confessed that when he composed his carried himself strangely, and was taken for insane. men of genius are often like the insane, given to con- n. Tolstoi acknowledges that philosophical scepticism a condition bordering on insanity. George Sands says t at about seventeen, she became deeply melancholic, was tempted to suicide; that this temptation was so and bizarre that she considered it a species of insanity. t his disease may have given a morbid character to his ons.

radoxical such sayings may seem, a serious investigation ing resemblances between the highest mental activity find. As a proof of this, we will give a number of facts, more might be added.

FACTS SHOWING ECCENTRICITIES, NERVOUS DISEASES, AND SYMPTOMS OF INSANITY.

of obtaining facts of an abnormal or pathological na- er unfavorable data, is obvious. Authors have not only data, but have not deemed them important enough to ne to the medical men, whose life brings them closest to y, that such facts have been gathered. If it be said that r exceptional must be taken with some caution, because the mind to exaggerate striking characteristics, it must that such facts, when unfavorable to reputation, are the study of any exceptional or abnormal individual, as enius, one finds much more concealed than is known.

hallucinations from his familiar genius or demon. Pan- edemonian, after killing a young slave, was tormented by a spirit, which pursued him in all places and which [illegible] was attacked with intermittent mania. [illegible] intervals, during which he com- [illegible] He was 14 years of age when he [illegible] had epileptic attacks during his [illegible] monastery, where he had the [illegible] own funeral rites in his own pres- [illegible] was insane and deformed. His [illegible] died at the age of 62 in a state of [illegible] infancy, was subject to [illegible] epilepsy. One of his sons had [illegible] was epileptic, of feeble

constitution, with pallid skin, and subject to headaches. Linné, a precocious genius, had a cranium hydrocephalic in form. He suffered from a stroke of paralysis. At the end of one attack he had forgotten his name. He died in a state of senile dementia. Raphael experienced temptations to suicide. He himself says: "I tied the fisherman's cords which I found in the boat eight times around her body and mine, tightly as in a winding sheet. I raised her in my arms, which I had kept free in order to precipitate her with me into the waves. * * * At the moment I was to leap, to be swallowed forever with her, I felt her pallid head turn upon my shoulder like a dead weight and the body sink down upon my knees."[1]

Pascal,[2] from birth till death, suffered from nervous troubles. At 1 year of age he fell into a languor, during which he could not see water without manifesting great outbursts of passion; and, still more peculiar, he could not bear to see his father and mother near one another. In 1627 he had paralysis from his waist down, so that he could not walk without crutches; this condition continued three months. During his last hours he was taken with terrible convulsions, in which he died. The autopsy showed peculiarities. His cranium appeared to have no suture, unless perhaps the lambdoid or sagittal. A large quantity of the brain substance was very much condensed. Opposite the ventricles there were two impressions as of a finger in wax. These cavities were full of clotted and decayed blood, and there was, it is said, a gangrenous condition of the dura mater. Walter Scott, during his infancy, had precarious health, and before the age of 2 was paralyzed in his right limb. He had a stroke of apoplexy. He had this vision on hearing of the death of Byron: Coming into the dining room, he saw before him the image of his dead friend; on advancing toward it, he recognized that the vision was due to drapery extended over the screen.[3]

Some men of genius who have observed themselves describe their inspiration as a gentle fever, during which their thoughts become rapid and involuntary. Dante says:

> * * * I'mi son un che, quando
> Armore spira, noto ed in quel modo
> Che detta dentro vo significando.

(I am so made that when love inspires me, I attend; and according as it speaks in me, I speak.)

Voltaire, like Cicero, Demosthenes, Newton, and Walter Scott, was born under the saddest and most alarming conditions of health. His feebleness was such that he could not be taken to church to be christened. During his first years he manifested an extraordinary mind. In his old age he was like a bent shadow.[4] He had an attack of

[1] Raphael, pages de la vingtième année.
[2] L'Amulette de Pascal, 1846.
[3] Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, January, 1843.
[4] Ségur, "Mem.," t. i.

age of 86. His autopsy showed a slight thickness
s of the cranium. In spite of his advanced age, there
s development of the encephalon.'
lo, while painting "The Last Judgment," fell from his
ived a painful injury to the leg. He shut himself up
see anyone. Baron Rontine, a celebrated physician,
t to see him. He found all the doors closed. No one
went to the cellar and came upstairs. He found
in his room, resolved to die. His friend the physician
him. He brought him out of the peculiar frame of
he had fallen. The elder brother of Richelieu, the
single man, he committed suicide because of a
parents. The sister of Richelieu was insane. Richelieu
ks of insanity; he would figure himself as a horse,
would have no recollection of it. Descartes, after a
was followed by an invisible person, who urged him
vestigations after the truth. Goethe was sure of hav
he image of himself coming to meet him. Goethe's
apoplectic attack. Cromwell, when at school, had a
his room suddenly the curtains opened and a woman
appeared to him, announcing his future greatness.
his power he [illegible] to recall this vision. Cromwell
[illegible] spoke of his hypochon
[illegible] was [illegible] by a sickly and neuropathical
[illegible] Rousseau was a type of the mel
[illegible] symptoms of [illegible]
[illegible] in the least
[illegible] conspira
[illegible] coming to his sell
[illegible] is a con
[illegible] angine
[illegible] In addi
[illegible] threw from
[illegible] He died from
[illegible] stepped with,
[illegible] to
[illegible] Science
[illegible] peasant class
[illegible] and super
[illegible] epileptic
[illegible] first

revelation at the age of 42. He lost his father in infancy and his mother in childhood; was a traveling merchant, and married a wealthy widow fifteen years older than himself. His revelations began with visions in sleep. He used to live alone in a cave. He had interviews with the Angel Gabriel. Henry Heine died of a chronic disease of the spinal column. Lotze was often melancholic. Molière suffered from convulsions; delay or derangement could throw him into a convulsion.

Mozart's musical talent was revealed at 3 years of age; between 4 and 6 he composed pieces with expertness. Mozart died at 36 of cerebral hydropsy. He had a presentiment of his approaching end. He was subject to fainting fits before and during the composition of his famous "Requiem." Mozart always thought that the unknown person which presented itself to him was not an ordinary being, but surely had relations with another world and that he was sent to him to announce his end. Cuvier died of an affection of the nervous centers; the autopsy showed a voluminous brain. He lost all his children by a fever called "cerebral." Condillac had frequent attacks of somnambulism; he sometimes found his work finished in the morning. Bossuet suffered from a disease from which he once lost speech, knowledge, and even the faculty of understanding. Dumas says: "Victor Hugo was dominated by the fixed idea to become a great poet and the greatest man of all countries and times. For a certain time the glory of Napoleon haunted him." Chopin ordered by will that he be buried in a gala costume, white cravat, small shoes, and short trousers. He abandoned his wife, whom he loved, because she offered another person a seat before she offered it to him. Giordano Bruno considered himself enlightened by a superior light sent from God, who knows the essence of things. Comte considered himself the "Great Priest" of humanity. Madame de Staël died in a state of delirium, which had lasted several days; according to some authors, several months. The autopsy showed a large quantity of cerebral matter, and very thin cranium. Moreau of Tours says she had a nervous habit of rolling continually between her fingers small strips of paper, an ample provision of which was kept on her mantlepiece. She used opium immoderately. She had a singular idea during her whole life; she was afraid of being cold in the tomb; she desired that she be enveloped in fur before burial.

English men of letters who have become insane, or have had hallucinations and peculiarities symptomatic of insanity, are Swift, Johnson, Cowper, Southey, Shelley, Byron, Goldsmith, Lamb, and Poe. Swift was also cruel in conduct, but he was hardly responsible, as his insanity was congenital. His paternal uncle lost speech and memory and died insane. Swift was somewhat erratic and wild as a university student. He suffered at times from giddiness, impaired eyesight, deafness, muscular twitchings, and paralysis of the muscles on the right side of the mouth. He had a bad temper, was called "mad person," actually feared insanity, saying once, on seeing a tree that had been struck by

ll be like that tree, I shall die at the top." Later in life
nt maniac. The post-mortem examination showed a cer-
sion and softening of the cortex. There were a number
alies. Shelley when young was strange and fond of
d was called "Mad Shelley;" he suffered from somnam-
lreams, and was excitable and impetuous; these symp-
ith age; at twenty he constantly took laudanum for his
n; he had hallucinations; he saw a child rise from the
hands, a vision which it was difficult to reason away.
ty existed in the immediate antecedents of Shelley.
as confined in an insane asylum. Johnson was hypo-
apprehended insanity, fancying himself seized with it;
ons, cramps, and a paralytic seizure depriving him of
allucinations of hearing. Carlyle considered Southey
ble man of his acquaintance. Southey's mind failed
an imbecile and died; a year before his death he was
e, little conscious of his surroundings. Southey wrote
was 8 years of age. His maternal uncle was an idiot
lexy. The mother of Southey had paralysis. Cowper
th melancholia at 20, which continued a year; at an-
urned with greater force. He himself tells of his at-
; he bought laudanum, keeping it in his pocket, when
essed him to carry it into execution; but soon another
n, to go to France and enter a monastery; then the
came again, to throw himself into the river—an in-
from taking the laudanum—but he would have suc-
ng himself, had not the thong to which the rope was
. After suicidal ideas left him, he relapsed into re-
lia, thinking he had committed the unpardonable sin.
in an asylum eighteen months. Keats was an extremely
passing from laughter to tears; he was extremely pas-
udanum to calm himself; sometimes he fell into de-
prophesied truly that he would never have any rest
the grave. The attacks of critics agitated him almost
s nervousness was very susceptible, so that even "the
" or "the sight of a flower" made his nature tremble.
precocious child, self absorbed, weakly, and morbid in
s morbidity was the cause of his running away from
ild and from college when a student; he enlisted as a
n went to Malta for no reason, permitting his family
harity. When 30 years of age his physical suffering led
m. Subsequently he had a lateral curvature of the
y. There were many morbid symptoms in the family.
y constitution and frame were *ab origine* blasted with
taint of melancholia which poisons my existence."
m effusion of blood upon the brain; he was a sickly

child, suffering from violent spasms; when a young man he had a slight nervousness which increased with age, and finally was attacked with incipient paralysis.[1] George Eliot suffered from melancholic moods, and from her thirtieth year had severe attacks of headache. As a child she was poor in health and extremely sensitive to terror in the night. She remained a "quivering fear" throughout her whole life.[2] De Quincey, the opium-eater, took opium as a relief from neuralgia and general nervous irritation. He was in bad health for a long time, dying at the age of 39. Alfred de Musset had attacks of syncope; he died at 47. George Sand described him in the Forest of Fontainebleau in his neurotic terror, in his joy and despair, as manifesting a nervous condition approaching delirium. He had a morbid cerebral sensibility, showing itself in hallucinations; he had a suicidal inclination. He was a dissipated gambler, passing from gaiety to depression. His keen disappointment in love in Italy was accompanied by brain fever. For some time after this he could not speak of his chagrin without falling into syncope. He had an hallucination, and to distinguish it from real things, he had to ask his brother. Wellington was subject to fainting fits; he had epilepsy and died from an attack of the disease. Warren Hastings was sickly during his whole life; in his latter years he suffered from paralysis, giddiness, and hallucinations of hearing. During the time of his paralysis he developed a taste for writing poetry.[3] Carlyle,[4] the dyspeptic martyr, showed extreme irritability. He says in his diary: "Nerves all inflamed and torn up, body and mind in a hag-ridden condition." He suffered from a paralysis in his right hand. Carlyle's antecedents were conspicuously of a nervous kind. Bach[5] died from a stroke of apoplexy; one of his numerous children was an idiot. His family suffered from nervous diseases. Handel[6] was very irritable; at the age of 50 he was stricken with paralysis, which so affected his mind that he lived in retirement for a year.

Nisbet[7] says: "Pathologically speaking, music is as fatal a gift to its possessor as the faculty for poetry or letters; the biographies of all the greatest musicians being a miserable chronicle of the ravages of nerve disorder extending, like the Mosaic curse, to the third and fourth generation." Newton in the last years of his life fell into a melancholia which deprived him of his power of thought. Newton himself in a letter to Locke says that he passed some months without having "a consistency of mind." He was also subject to vertigo. From the manner of manifestation and the results following from this disease,

[1] Foster. Life of Charles Dickens.
[2] J. W. Cross. Life of George Eliot.
[3] Gleig. Memoirs of the life of Warren Hastings.
[4] Reminiscences.
[5] Spitta. Life of John Sebastian Bach.
[6] Rockstro. Life of Handel.
[7] The Insanity of Genius.

far as to say that it permits a certain degree of diag-
be called acute *dementia*.

of Tasso is probable from the fact that, like Socrates,
nd a familiar genius which was pleased to talk with
whom he learned things never before heard of. Swift
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ll himself. His father died of apoplexy; his brother
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s. "My chief fault," says Chateaubriand, "is weariness,
ything and perpetual doubt." Tacitus had a son who
Beethoven was naturally bizarre and exceedingly irrita
e deaf and fell into a profound melancholia, in which he
er the Great had a neurosis of the muscles of the neck,
from birth, and causing his head to incline constantly
ers. He died at the age of 32, having all the symptoms
m tremens. His brother Arrehide was an idiot. His
ssolute woman; his father was both dissolute and vio
e Honore died of hypertrophy of the heart, a disease
pose one to cerebral congestion. The eccentricity of
known. Lamartine says he had peculiar notions about
s in contradiction with the common sense of "this low
ther was as peculiar. Lord Chatam was from a family
tal disproportions, of peculiarities almost approaching
d Chatam did not do things as others; he was mys
olent, indolent and active, imperious and charming.
y. He had this hallucination. One day he seemed to
[illegible] wall, and he inquired of his physician
[illegible] Lord Byron was scrofulous and rachitic and
[illegible] that he was visited by a ghost;
[illegible] of his brain. He was born
[illegible] that Byron was in
[illegible] apoplectic attack. Napo
[illegible] of the right shoulder
[illegible] mouth from left to right.
[illegible] he looked like a hun
[illegible] left leg. Having a very
[illegible] He feared apoplexy. To a
[illegible] The general did not
[illegible] not discover it? It is
[illegible] progress; it cried out, "that
[illegible] great occasions; it says to
[illegible] fortune."

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Many great men have believed in the existence of a star, of a genius protector. It is probable that many of these hallucinations have aided men in the execution of their plans. Additional biographical data concerning the different types of genius might be added, and many will occur to anyone who has read the lives of great men. In certain instances the authority for some of the facts might be questioned, but the great majority will stand.

Lombroso thinks geniuses differ as much from father and mother, which is characteristic of degeneracy, and thus the physical resemblances between geniuses of different epochs and races are noticed, as in Julius Cæsar and Napoleon. They sometimes lose their national type, and it occurs in the most noble traits, as elevation of forehead, remarkable development of nose and head, and vivacity of the eyes. A parallel example is found in Cretins and insane. Humboldt, Virchow, Bismarck, and Hemholtz do not have, according to Lombroso, the German physiognomy. Byron did not have the physiognomy or the character of the English.

Stammering troubled Æsop, Virgil, Demosthenes, Alcibiades, Erasmus, Cato of Utica, and Charles V. Sterility is not uncommon in great men, as Dryden, Addison, Pope, Swift, Johnson, and Goldsmith. Precocity is a symptom of genius and insanity. Dante composed verses at 9, Tasso and Mirabeau at 10. Comte and Voltaire and Pascal were great thinkers at 13; Niebuhr at 7; Jonathan Edwards and Bossuet and Pope at 12; Goethe before 10; Victor Hugo and Fénélon at 15. Handel and Beethoven composed at 13; Mozart gave concerts at 6; Raphael was renowned at 14. Yet some great men were regarded as poor pupils, as, for example, Pestalozzi, Wellington, Balzac, Humboldt, Boccacio, Linne, Newton, and Walter Scott.

Originality is very common, both to men of genius and the insane; but in the latter case it is generally without purpose. Lombroso goes so far as to make unconsciousness and spontaneity in genius resemble epileptic attacks. Hagen makes irresistible impulse one of the characteristics of genius, as Schüle (see above) does in insanity.[1] Mozart avowed that his musical inventions came involuntary, like dreams, showing an unconsciousness and spontaneity, which are also frequent in insanity. Socrates says that poets create, not by reflection, but by natural instinct. Voltaire said, in a letter to Diderot, that all manifestations of genius are effects of instinct, and that all the philosophers of the world together could not have given "Les animaux malades de la peste," which La Fontaine composed without knowing even what he did. According to Goethe a certain cerebral irritation is necessary to poets. Klopstock declared that in dreams he had found many inspirations for his poem.

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[1] Klinische Psychiatrie

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be called acute *dementia*.

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ther was as peculiar. Lord Chatam was from a family
tal disproportions, of peculiarities almost approaching
rd Chatam did not do things as others; he was mys-
olent, indolent and active, imperious and charming.
ty. He had this hallucination: One day he seemed to
e out from the wall, and he inquired of his physician
ould be. Lord Byron was scrofulous and rachitic and
metimes he imagined that he was visited by a ghost;
ed to the over-excitability of his brain. He was born
Lord Dudley had the conviction that Byron was in-
e of Wellington died of an apoplectic attack. Napo-
nt back; an involuntary movement of the right shoulder.
e time another movement of the mouth from left to right.
, according to his own expression, he looked like a hur-
a vibration in the calf of his left leg. Having a very
he did not like new hats. He feared apoplexy. To a
room he said, "See up there." The general did not
at," said Napoleon, "do you not discover it? It is
liant, becoming animated by degrees; it cried out, 'that
abandon me;' I see it on all great occasions; it says to
and it is for me a constant sign of fortune."

[1] Psychologie morbide. [2] Plutarch.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

Many great men have believed in the existence of a star, of a genius protector. It is probable that many of these hallucinations have aided men in the execution of their plans. Additional biographical data concerning the different types of genius might be added, and many will occur to anyone who has read the lives of great men. In certain instances the authority for some of the facts might be questioned, but the great majority will stand.

Lombroso thinks geniuses differ as much from father and mother, which is characteristic of degeneracy, and thus the physical resemblances between geniuses of different epochs and races are noticed, as in Julius Cæsar and Napoleon. They sometimes lose their national type, and it occurs in the most noble traits, as elevation of forehead, remarkable development of nose and head, and vivacity of the eyes. A parallel example is found in Cretins and insane. Humboldt, Virchow, Bismarck, and Hemholtz do not have, according to Lombroso, the German physiognomy. Byron did not have the physiognomy or the character of the English.

Stammering troubled Æsop, Virgil, Demosthenes, Alcibiades, Erasmus, Cato of Utica, and Charles V. Sterility is not uncommon in great men, as Dryden, Addison, Pope, Swift, Johnson, and Goldsmith. Precocity is a symptom of genius and insanity. Dante composed verses at 9, Tasso and Mirabeau at 10. Comte and Voltaire and Pascal were great thinkers at 13; Niebuhr at 7; Jonathan Edwards and Bossuet and Pope at 12; Goethe before 10; Victor Hugo and Fénélon at 15. Handel and Beethoven composed at 13; Mozart gave concerts at 6; Raphael was renowned at 14. Yet some great men were regarded as poor pupils, as, for example, Pestalozzi, Wellington, Balzac, Humboldt, Boccacio, Linne, Newton, and Walter Scott.

Originality is very common, both to men of genius and the insane; but in the latter case it is generally without purpose. Lombroso goes so far as to make unconsciousness and spontaneity in genius resemble epileptic attacks. Hagen makes irresistible impulse one of the characteristics of genius, as Schüle (see above) does in insanity.[1] Mozart avowed that his musical inventions came involuntary, like dreams, showing an unconsciousness and spontaneity, which are also frequent in insanity. Socrates says that poets create, not by reflection, but by natural instinct. Voltaire said, in a letter to Diderot, that all manifestations of genius are effects of instinct, and that all the philosophers of the world together could not have given "Les animaux malades de la peste," which La Fontaine composed without knowing even what he did. According to Goethe a certain cerebral irritation is necessary to poets. Klopstock declared that in dreams he had found many inspirations for his poem.

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[1] Klinische Psychiatrie.

great thoughts of genius often come spontaneously, so
eas of the insane.
inclined to misinterpret the acts of others and consider
ecuted. These are well-known tendencies of the insane.
ateaubriand could not hear a person praised, even their
hout feeling a certain opposition. Schopenhaur became
to pay a bill, in which his name was written with a
nhealthy vanity is also common in the ambitions of

L ANOMALIES IN MEN OF GENIUS AND IN THE INSANE.

n of genius are rachitic and some have cranial and ce-
Vico, Clement VI, and Malbranche had their skulls
icles, Bichat, Kant, and Dante had cranial asymmetry.
bnormal development of the left parietal bone and two
he frontal bone. Kant was ultrabrachycephalic; the
etween the upper part of the occipital bone and the
ticeable; the same is true as to the minimum smallness
re as compared with the parietal. The "soudures" of
the crania of Byron, Pascal, and Humboldt are to be
tes was submicrocephalic. Milton, Linnæus, Cuvier, and
drocephalic. Dante and Gambetta had small cranial
seau had hydropsical ventricles, Gauss[1] and Bichat had
ed left hemisphere than right.
Rüdinger, in a study of eighteen brains of German sa-
nd congenital anomalies of the cerebral convolutions.
l in general that a large proportion of mental diseases
f degeneracy, that is to say, they are the offspring of
, syphilitic, and consumptive parents. The most fre
ristics of mental diseases are: apathy, weakness or
sense, impulsiveness, propensity to doubt, verbosity or
uteness, extreme vanity or eccentricity, excessive pre
h one's own personality, mystical interpretations of
allucinations, abuse of symbols or special terms, some
ng every other form of expression, and a general phys-
on through an excessive development of certain fac
sence of others. The reader is particularly requested
physical symptoms of insanity, for almost all of them,
n, are found in men of genius. If X were substituted
d Y for genius, so as to dispel preconceived notions, an
ver would be very loath to say that the characteristics
ing them under the same general category. Also some
characteristics of the insane are almost as frequent in
are: asymmetry of face and head, irregularity in teeth,
and head very small or very large. In the insane are
d abnormally large or small ears or mouth, hare lips,

[1] Wagner, Das Hirngewicht des Menschen, 1878.

hypertrophy of the under lip, gums wide or one-sided, bent nose, hands unequal in size, abnormal growth of hair over body, growth of beard on women, and defective eyebrows, etc. Cerebral anæmia is frequent and hyperæmia very frequent in the insane. Wildermuth from an investigation of 127 idiots found 69 normal craniums. Meynert[1] says that 114 out of 142 idiots show signs of degeneration. In order that some of the results may be seen more in detail, we give some tables.[2]

TABLE I.—*Cranial capacity in cubic centimeters.*

Men:	
Average of 30 normal craniums	1,450
Average of 10 epileptic craniums	1,523
Women:	
Average of 30 normal craniums	1,300
Average of 14 epileptic's craniums	1,346

Here in Table I (as in the case of men of talent and genius in the following Table II) we see that the abnormal exceed the normal in brain development, that is to say, in these cases the insane and genius both exceed the normal man in cranial capacity or weight of brain.

TABLE II.

Men of talent and genius	Age	Weight of brain in grammes.	Medium weight of average brain at same age.	Cranial capacity in cubic centimeters.	Horizontal circumference in millimeters.
Webster (statesman)	70	1,520	1,303		
Thackery (humorist)	52	1,660	1,368		
Cuvier (scientist)	62	1,829	1,340		
Gauss (mathematician)	78	1,492	1,216		
Broca (anthropologist)	65	1,485	1,331		
Kant (philosopher)				1,740	
Napoleon I (general)					564
Darwin (scientist)					563
Wagner (musician)					600
Dante				1,094	
Schumann, Robert				1,510	
Schwann (scientist)					565
Napoleon III		1,480			
Müller (scientist)					614
Liebig (chemist)	70	1,352	1,303	1,750	
Whewell (philosopher)	[illegible]	1,380			
Average of 15 men of talent	[illegible]	1,474	1,319		

Taking now 551 millimeters as an average horizontal circumference of the head it will be seen that Napoleon, Darwin, Wagner, Schwann, and Müller exceed the normal. The averages of brain weight for the different ages, given by Welcker, are not absolute, but sufficiently near the truth for comparison.

TABLE III.

	Weight of brain	No. of brains
Melancholia	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mania	[illegible]	15
Old cases	[illegible]	[illegible]
Transition forms	[illegible]	15
		[illegible]

[1] Meynert: Klinische Vorlesungen über Psychiatrie, 1890.
[2] Welcker: Schiller's Schädel, etc.

mmes is taken as an average weight for a brain, Table
isane much above the normal, but this is 62 out of 579
l. If we take the totals of the 579 as given in Table IV,
the average except the maniacs among men. The ex-
nce from the average may be regarded as abnormal and
anomalies. To show more clearly the anomalous nature
f the insane, Table V is given.

TABLE IV.

	Sex.	Weight.
Total melancholia	Men	1,285.16
	Women	1,210.37
Total mania	Men	1,376.41
	Women	1,221.69
Total old cases	Men	1,319.22
	Women	1,173.74
Total paralytics	Men	1,214.62
	Women	1,068.24
Total transition forms	Men	1,336.63
	Women	1,199.03

fore from these tables that particular individuals among
e and genius show extremely large cerebral capacity,
neral the insane are much below the normal while the
e in brain capacity and brain weight.

TABLE V.

	Sex.	No.	Weight.
Melancholia	Men	23	1,052.09
	Women	51	1,035.05
Mania	Men	39	.....
	Women	53	1,025.08
Old cases	Men	88	.....
	Women	31	1,057.40
Paralytics	Men	145	1,032.81
	Women	29	1,048.88
Transition forms	Men	43	.....
	Women	49	1,055.06

nd some of the heaviest brains (weighing 1,650, 1,778,
5 grammes) among common and unknown laborers; but
very rare, so much so that the average is not affected.
s says that the largest brain has been found in a lunatic,
largest in a genius. The main fact brought out by the
rge number of anomalies and deviations from the normal
y and genius.

CONCLUSION.

ted thus far would seem to indicate that genius is not
, but often passes into a pathological form. But it may
particularly as to what is meant by pathological and

and fundamental conception of disease is an excess of
his statement can be supported by the highest medical

authorities. Virchow[1] says that substratum upon which pathological manifestations play is a repetition or reproduction of the normal morphological stratum; its pathological character consists in this, that the stratum arises in an unfit way or at the wrong place or time; or it may depend upon an abnormal increase of the tissue elements, resulting in deviation, which becomes degeneration. Thus in pathological relations there is a preservation of specific normal characteristics; nothing new arises functionally. Pathology is *in potentia* in physiology. According to Perl, pathological phenomena are distinguished from the normal by their unequal and little constancy. Cohnheim affirms that physiological laws hold their validity in diseased organisms; that abnormal means a considerable deviation from the type. Ziegler[2] says that disease is nothing else than a life whose manifestations deviate in part from the normal.

In saying that genius manifests the symptoms of a neurosis or psychosis, we mean an excessive nervous or cerebral action. Many forms of insanity are also manifestations of similar excessive action. Such action in one individual can give rise to most wonderful, original, and brilliant ideas, and we call it genius; in another individual it produces also wonderful and original but highly absurd thoughts, and we call it insanity. But it appears that the fundamental cause in both genius and insanity is the same; *it is the excessive psychical or nervous energy.*

Some of the flights of genius are most brilliant and fascinating, yet they are none the less abnormal; and when this abnormality reaches a certain degree it can become pathological. Thus Don Quixote has wonderful ideas; he is an ardent soul with brilliant thoughts superior to the opinions of his contemporaries. Yet he renders no account of real things; he is in the air; he takes his imaginations for realities, sees everything in his dream; he is without critical spirit and has little balance. Edgar Poe is full of phantasy, invention, original creations, extreme notions, regardless of critical spirit. Poe was somewhat dipsomaniac. While his writings are remarkable, yet they have elements similar to the wanderings of the insane.

Some characteristics of genius are originality, egotism, vanity, indiscretion, and lack of common sense; precocity, sterility, irritability, impetuosity, melancholy, and susceptibility to visions and dreams. These characteristics belong also to the insane. If it be said that it is cruel to compare much that we consider highest in the world with insanity, the reply is, that we might as well object to classing man among the bipeds because vultures are bipeds. Any analysis of genius that may show the closest relation to insanity cannot change genius itself. Faust and Hamlet remain Faust and Hamlet. Genius and great talent may be considered those forms of abnormality most beneficial to society.

[1] Cellular Pathologie.
[2] Allgemeine path. Anatomie.

CHAPTER VI.

AL, ETHICAL, AND CHARITOLOGICAL LITERATURE.

lella Sociologia Criminale. NAPOLEONE COLAJANNI. Rivista di filosofia scientifica. Novembre, 1888.

s the standard-bearer and the principal authority among ts. Development is not always normal in human society; suffers from disease, just as the individual organisms; essity of the study of the morbid or abnormal state—a sciology. This comprehends the study of the anomalies ure, showing their coexistence and their derivation one r in the social organism. Criminal sociology occupies s criminal manifestations. Romagnosi, the statesman, es are the diseases of the social body; sometimes they netimes local, now permanent, now transitory. Criminal rms the analogies between biology and sociology. The e laws and respective characteristics is shown, not only veloped organism, but in assigning to sociology the prin- s of the evolution in all the phases of one society. The nal sociology is direct and indirect: (1) By the study of l alterations, the knowledge of the normal functions is s one is better able to determine the relation between t in diverse social phenomena; for, as Drill says, delin- ensible measure of the degree of health, strength, and given society in every given moment of its existence. utility of the study of social pathology, especially of ogy, is intuitive; it directs one towards the care and pre- e; in lessening pain by gaining a just and free exercise results in the diminution of crime. But what is the place ology in the hierarchy of the sciences? Lucchini, Fulci, ree famous Italian statesmen, maintain the superiority hat of sociology. Others hold that legal science is only sciology.

gy is a study of the whole life of the social organism. vide biology into anthropology and criminal psychology. nks that sociology should be included in anthropology. gy should be an introduction to sociology. Garrandi's) Study of the world of criminality in its actual state

and in its history; (2) Investigation of causes which produce crime; (3) Indication and organization of the means of combating crime. But a more practical division is this: (1) Genesis and etiology of crime; (2) Treatment of crime, (*a*) prevention, (*b*) repression; (3) history and course of crime.

Socialismo e Criminalità. ENRICO FERRI. Roma, 1883. pp. 224.

The author says in his preface to the reader that it is imposed upon contemporary science to embrace daily reality, and not platonic researches for archæological sweepings; and that this is not the love of science for its own sake, but for the sake of life. He calls attention to two new current ideas; one is the result of the experimental method in the study of criminal phenomena, the other is the effect of positivism in the study of economical facts. His conclusions are as follows: Crime, like all other manifestations of social pathology, is the offspring of the present social system; but socialism will change radically the state of society. In the new order of things prophesied and desired, crime will disappear (in a manner more or less absolute), and with it the relatively unproductive institutions—prisons, soldiers, and judges. The social surroundings will be the best, and crime, like misery, ignorance, prostitution, and immorality in general, will finish their sad tyranny. The following are two general socialistic affirmations which have immediate relation to the problem of the criminality of the future. The iron laws of the struggle for existence, which have dominated the animal world and humanity, will be eliminated from the economical order of socialism, which is the suppression of vital competition. Egoism, which in humanity, past and present, stands as a bar to all moral and social life, will disappear before altruism, disinterestedness, and love of neighbor, which will reign sovereign in the economical order of socialism.

Ueber die Ursachen der heutigen socialen Noth, von LUJO BRENTANO. Leipzig, 1889. pp. 43.

One method in political economy is to follow a definition rather than reality; to formulate concepts so that they correspond to ideals rather than facts, as Karl Marx and Rodbertus have done. The latter admits that the proposition whereby the value is equal to the labor which the production of an object has cost does not agree with facts; what is presupposed should take place, and the source of all social evils, is regarded as lying in the contradiction of this postulate with reality. Another abstract school shows that value is not equal to the amount of work used in production, and that the deliverance of the whole product to the workman is not justified. But this school stops here, and there arises the idea that in the economic world all is in order, that there is no need which is not the fault of the individual himself. We accept neither of these views; we do not undertake to master life in such a way, to chase after ideals that can not be realized. The establishment of an idea must rest upon reality. We are contented with

strive to have, if only the material conditions exist all. Following the method of the investigator of that social need, as it develops in reality, has nothing e ideas which fill the minds of those who deal with the irst and last cause of the present social need is the un- nomical life, which arose with the dependence of all e emporium, a necessary stage in the development of y. The remedy is not a new organization of economic isty the nearest needs of the present, and when these ly should cease with them. Protective organizations test hostility of theoreticians of all views, the individ- alistic, but there develops out of these a new organiza- e life which is practical, and promises to set aside the xistence. This does not show us how a theory to mas- ut only to observe life, how its principles run, so that fe accordingly.

Statistique des Divorces, par M. JACQUES BERTILLON. Paris. pp. 25.

l divorces are more frequent than in any other Euro- Saxony is next, and is the only country where the men s almost as often as the women. Those two countries other countries of Europe as to demand special men- d troubles are frequent in France, where, however, t exist. It is wrong to say, therefore, that divorce ables.

onclusions from statistics are: (1) that in incompatible oman suffers more more often than the man; (2) that o not very often marry again when they are young, but ge ties, do with great ardour; (3) that widows marry fter the dissolution of their first marriage than men. [illegible] that in the countries where di [illegible] order to marry again. Statistics show ru [illegible] men at least, but is true as to a cer wo [illegible] Tables of [illegible] show a considerable mortal [illegible] 1,000 requests for sepa ce, [illegible] upon a grave charge, 55 upon [illegible] of the man, and 11 upon [illegible] the first year of rir [illegible] next four years second to fifth, 53 th [illegible] to tenth, 31 during each of rs [illegible] and 12 during the next ten rst [illegible]

[illegible] pp. 122.

[illegible] nature in the sense [illegible] but they have no [illegible] They are true or false. Motives through fear and

hope are not sanctions, nor is a pressure of feeling, as such, a sanction, nor the thought of a command of will of higher power. The ethical sanction is a command similar to the logical rule. The esthetical standpoint—as in logic, so in ethics—can not be the right one. Logical commands are naturally valid rules of judgments. The proper logical superiority or preference is a certain inner rightness which shows on its face a certain excellency. Belief in this excellency is an ethical motive; the knowledge of this excellency is the right ethical motive, the sanction, which gives to the ethical law continuance and validity.

But how shall we arrive at this knowledge? Kant's categorical imperative is a useless fiction. We must look to the results of recent investigation in descriptive psychology. There is no volition without a final purpose; without this all motive power fails; otherwise we would have the absurdity of a purpose without a purpose. Which is the right purpose? is the principal question in ethics. The right purpose is the best attainable; but this is dark, for what do we mean by "best"? The idea of good does not come from outward perception. That which is worthy of love is the good in the widest sense of the word. That which is good in itself is good in the narrow sense; it alone can be compared to the true, for all that is true is true in itself, even if it is also indirectly perceived. There is an instinctive pleasure in our tastes for certain kinds of food. We have also another kind of pleasure, just as instinctive, in clear insight and knowledge; this is a higher form of pleasure.

It is impossible to measure the intensities of pleasures and pains, as the pleasures of smoking a cigar, hearing a symphony, or seeing a Madonna. The summation of good, good in its widest sense, is the purpose of life, to which every act should be ordered. Self-sacrifice, therefore, becomes duty; envy is excluded. Utilitarian considerations are the standard in the multiplicity of secondary rules which nature has laid in tables of law. These rules can be at discord, and in this sense is their ethical relativity. There is a hidden working of true ethical sanction in pseudo-ethical developments.

Il Concetto Scientifico della Libertà Morale. ALBERTO FRASSI. Pisa, 1888. pp. 22.

It is not to be doubted, from the material side of mental actions, that every psychical act consists in a transmission and in a modification of an external impulse; that this is a particular form of energy, of motion. Motion, irritability, and thought are the constant forms of energy which accompany, respectively, atoms, monera, and men. These are the three phases of a continued evolution. Thus the spontaneity of the actions of living beings exists neither more nor less than any other phenomenon of the universe. That which we believe to be the liberty of decision is nothing else than an awakened consciousness in us of the same decision; and the illusion of being free in volition depends, first of all, on the diversity of innumerable causes, which,

rcumstances and temperaments, can direct the action
derates; in the second place, on the confusion that is
between liberty and consciousness, as has been said,
and possibility. The final determination is the infallible
product of three factors: (1) The individual organiza-
ludes the physical, moral, inborn constitution, dispo-
ies, talents, etc.; (2) the state of the nervous system at
which the impression is received, which puts it (nervous
ivity, including in this catagory also the moral state,
rvous centers become occupied by habit and education;
of the impressions received at the point of acting,
me from passion, or whether they are awakened through
association within the nervous centers.

latively modern school which restricts the old idea of
of an indefinite moral liberty, but this does not help,
acts always according to the strongest motive, and
reign without power, who reigns but does not govern;
orto," which is at the same time alive; it is a name
represent a fact.

ism is not fatalism; it is not a passive obedience, a de-
on, which justifies the end and means of deriving from
l wisdom, which alone can satisfy the faith of a Ma-
rahmin lost in contemplation. Ethical education, intel-
and the severity of the laws are efficient through de-
ming sufficient motives to guide our actions according
l principles of morality.

Arbitre, par ERNEST NAVILLE. Paris, 1880. pp. 338.

rope the idea of liberty developes a live sentiment of
individual, a feeling more or less unknown to antiquity.
me science seeks to explain the destinies of man and
e same laws that govern the motion of matter; that is,
universal necessity. This opposition between theory
not normal; its maintenance is more and more to the
losophy. Just as a living organism rejects dead ele-
uman mind can not assimilate doctrines which contra-
iate sentiment of reality. To sustain the liberty of
s not recognize the organic conditions of life; it is to
mation of free will legitimately suspicious to men who
t of scientific progress. The elements of nature cou-
of determinism in the complex phenomenon of human
affirmation of a relative liberty offers the synthesis of the
nd necessity; but the two terms are contradictory in
every synthesis that claims to efface this contradiction,
o distinct elements instead of constituting their rela-
more than a negation of free will. The supreme ques-

tion is, as to whether the world unrolls fatally, so that man has no more influence over his destiny than over the course of the stars; or, is a part of the plan of the world adapted to liberty, the knowledge of which imposes action. It is time that science inclines to this fact and refuses to live in a world of abstractions irreconcilable with reality. Philosophy should recognize that if determinism is the postulate of all the physical and physiological sciences, relative liberty is none the less certainly the postulate of all the psychological and moral sciences.

Ethische Essays, von GUSTAV BÖHMER. I. Schädige Niemanden ohne Noth. München, 1880. pp. 110.

The daily new discoveries of science show that the world is greater and richer than our senses are able to grasp; it is an unceasing proof of the limitations of human knowledge. The attraction of the earth is just as great an enigma as the consciousness of our body. Just as we must believe that the cart remains when no one is there, so we must believe that there is something higher than man, which holds our life as all nature in motion. Every science strengthens this belief on the Almighty Force. The theory of need is the basis of scientific ethics. All moral acts are dependent either upon self-preservation or preservation of the species.

The ethical principle of the people is, that that action is bad by which the actor injures a person unnecessarily.

An absolute morality for all times is not possible. Every human generation has its own rational morality, which is not absolute, because its ground principle changes, even under the eyes of the living.

Die ethische Aufgabe des Menschen, von DR. BERTHOLD WEISS. Leipzig und Wien, 1880. pp. 23.

The natural striving of men is to obtain the most frequent, intensive, and long enduring happiness. But pleasure and pain are very differently divided among men. This inequality of division, which appears to be limited by capacity, environment, and act, is it subjectively grounded? Do happiness and merit, unhappiness and guilt, stand in a causal relation?

Responsibility for health or disease, environment or bad education, well being or poverty, can not be thought of; yet these are often alone sufficient to make a life happy or miserable, and here no further investigation is necessary to establish the injustice of the division of pleasure and pain. In fact there is no responsibility for acts, and therefore all human happiness and unhappiness is unmerited. A hungry man sees a loaf of bread on the window; he is lazy, and considers whether anyone will notice him or whether he will be caught. If hunger and laziness exceed the fear of being caught or punished, theft is the result; if hunger and fear exceed laziness, work is the result; if fear and laziness are stronger than hunger, there is no result. If the idea

a child brings more pain to the mother than her own
hes into the burning house to save the child. Thus
for volition and action has as little applicability as it
se of capacities and environment. When a grown-up
a consciousness of himself, he finds himself a distinct
ain characteristics and dispositions, a son of certain
certain state, at a certain epoch in the development of
rywhere the highest subjective contingency joined to
cessity. That the beautiful is preferred to the ugly,
outwits stupidity, and strength oversteps weakness, is
hensible as that a wolf eats a lamb; and yet this guilt
lies only in the fact of coming into the world as lamb

ask of men and humanity is to destroy this inequality of
portunity presents, and above all, to set aside, hinder, or
ring as unmerited. Objectively right (good for humanity)
which, under given relations, are most favorable to the
ppiness to mankind. These same acts are subjectively
y contribute to the happiness of the individual. Where
riving of a man accords with the ethical postulate of
, there the absolute ideal of right action is attained.

Christ. Ethik, von HERMANN WEISS. Freiburg i. B., 1[illegible]
pp. 238

o the task which theological as well as philosophical
now before us, the treatment of fundamental questions
gnity. The author has taken these up somewhat fully
with a view to the problems in the life and literature of
Theology can not isolate itself from ethics, philosophy, or
ure. Science can not exclude the moral thinking and
tra[illegible] in cultured Christendom. True morality is
completed only in connection with religion; and true
ys morally formed, and is determined upon the ground

[illegible] experience is throughout that there is in
[illegible] consciousness of the goodness of God. This
[illegible] of absolute moral determination in
[illegible] absolute goodness. These two expe-
[illegible] another, are manifestations of divine

[illegible] pp. [illegible]

[illegible] obedience to certain ethical
[illegible] the only laws; but these laws rest
[illegible] tion. The motive to do
[illegible] and the ethical problem
[illegible] How [illegible] plant that motive in the

souls of men! The problem is not speculative, but practical. Yet correct theories are the indispensable conditions of all progress in practical life. To inculcate the ethical motive requires us to lay down a principle or standard; and to comprehend this the origin and evolution of ethics must be studied. Ethics in the widest sense of the term means regulation of action; in the more definite sense it represents those duties which must be performed in the interest of society. The ethical stimulus has been implanted into man by religion. Religion is a philosophy employed as a regulative principle for action.

The cause that sets the will into motion we call motive. If this will were not determined by motives it would indicate a state of disease, yet this does not mean there is no such thing as freedom of will. But we must make a distinction between necessity and compulsion; necessity is determined by law; compulsion is forcing one to do something against his will. There would be no objection to the word compulsion if it meant that a man was the slave of his motive. In this case the free man would be he who himself compels himself to whatever actions he undertakes, while the slave is compelled by other things, for instance his master's whip. A will not determined by a motive is nonsensical. Responsibility is the consciousness of a free man that he is the author of his actions and of their consequences. The free man is like the artist, full of an idea, executing it without any compulsion, of his own free will. When every man can be a law unto himself he is free. In that day society will realize the highest ideals: justice, order, and freedom.

Les Origines du Mariage et de la Famille, par A. GIRAUD-TEULON, fils. Geneve, Paris, 1884. pp. 525.

The more one penetrates into the cosmos the more he recognizes the poverty of pure reasoning, its fictions, as the multiple ways of the evolution of natural phenomena become known. This experimental method has need of existence in the domain of history; and it is the purpose of this book to exemplify its application.

An analysis of the primitive forms of human society is not favorable to the doctrines commonly accepted by the philosophy of history. An impartial study does not indicate that man appeared upon the globe at the head of his family. Exegesis permits us to see in the moral world, as in the physical, the product of successive transformations carried on for ages almost insensibly. The patriarchal family is only a stage in the development of humanity, where one can recognize the vestiges of a more rudimentary state.

Under the feet of classical peoples there extends a stratum of human fossils, which occupied a vast territory and whose laws and ideas differed profoundly from those of historical peoples. This substratum has left in Asia, America, Oceanica, and Africa, the débris of domestic institutions diametrically opposed to those of the patriarchal family.

ent human societies appear to have been organized on
f communistic marriage; and when consanguinity be-
ie law of the family it was indicated first only by the
; the family did not rest on paternal power, but upon
guinity; the rights of succession, of property, authority
feminine line, and man as father was relegated to a
nation. Thus the maternal family is an inevitable stage
ive civilization, and the patriarchal is a consequence of
of the human race. But it is urged that certain human
practiced monogamy, just as certain species of animals
anthropoid apes, the carnivora, the swallows (monog-
pigeons, etc. This supposition would be admissible if
ould demonstrate the diversity of the origin of human
absence of this we must picture the human race as a
According to the customs of present savages it would
ontusion in the relation of the sexes and uterine parent-
he law of primitive societies. The conception of man in
tive nature, degraded by his primordial innocence and
ivilization, etc., became in a fantastic form one of the
s in the French revolution. It is in the conception of
primitive equality that the roots of communism rest.
rogression, on the contrary, comes from scientific inves
fundamental differences between these two theories is
individual is a social unity while in the other he is a
undivided and of common descendance, which is consid
nity. Social progress on the theory of evolution, is con
rdinary laws of development—that is, that it has been
l to the particular. If all races have had, as a point of
st al prom sorty, the history of the family is presented
levated respect than that which the traditional theory
ng est of mar. If moral civilization be considered as
of material wealth and of the right of property, the
h s con e ed ch that of the progress of the family,
he la s e o pose s n modern times on monogamy,
o e . The importance of this virtue of
j e of the mother and wife the sa
e e

[illegible] Domestic Ans
[illegible]

[illegible] for moral and social
p [illegible] ple of superior civili
e [illegible] stedness, whence arise
st [illegible] the second degree.
[illegible] species, and raises us
[illegible] ongest of. Al morality founded

upon the rival interest of our species leads it back to animality. The social being can not develop its dignity except by reacting against the natural instinct of egoism and of combat, to which the brute simply abandons itself without moral law or free volition. Generous passions can be pleasurable; happiness, devotion, and love can be just. The higher a man rises the easier it is for him to live according to moral law. But the human species will never arrive at perfection—that is, universal and complete devotion. The state of social perfection is an ideal that should always be held up. A wise philosophy should doubt that man, reduced to his sources, is sufficiently robust to maintain the moral task; a Christian should affirm that he is not, and that he has need of grace. However little Christian a philosophy may be, it will not deny the utility of Christianity simply as a doctrine to fortify for struggle. The most recent results of science are far from having made Christianity a beautiful ancient legend; they have rather renewed its youth. The nations of equality and liberty are evangelical fruit. Contemporary history and literature exhibit man as placed between two geniuses—disinterestedness and interestedness. According as he gives way to one or the other he does good or evil.

Les Lois de l'Imitation; étude sociologique, par G. Tarde. Paris, 1890. pp. 431.

In this work the author has endeavored with as much clearness as possible to bring out the purely social side of humanity; abstracting that which is simply vital or physical. But he finds that the point of view, in favor of which he could mark this difference, shows between the social and natural phenomena the most numerous, constant, and natural analogies. This pure sociology is general; its laws are applicable to all actual past or possible societies, just as physiological laws are to all species. The philosophy of history and the philosophy of nature, as generally understood, present the historical and natural phenomena in such a way as to preclude the possibility of a wholly different grouping or succession.

The real is only explicable by being attached to the immensity of the possible—that is to say, of the necessary under conditions, where it swims as a star in infinite space. The idea of law is the conception of this firmament of facts. Certainly all is rigorously determined, and the reality could not be different, its primordial and unknown conditions being given. But why these, and not others? There is irrationality at the basis of necessity. Also in the physical and living domain, as in the social world, that which is realized seems to be only a fragment of that which can be realized. The mind does not admit the relation of cause to effect, except where the effect resembles the cause, repeats the cause; as an undulation gives rise to another similar undulation. Each time that "produce" does not signify to "reproduce," all becomes dark to us. There is only science of similitudes and phenomenal repetitions. (1) All the similitudes in the chemical, physical, and astronom-

e for their explanation and possible cause periodic
ovements. (2) All similitudes in the vital world result
transmission, from intraorganic or extraorganic gener-
he similitudes of social origin are the direct or indirect
in all its forms—custom, sympathy, obedience, instruc-
social imitation, or reflective imitation. In short, every
has imitation as its cause.

may be defined as a collection of beings in so far as
l among themselves, or, without actual imitation, in so
ble one another, and their common traits are ancient
ne model. Society is essentially imitation. The brain
h repeats sensitive centers, and is jtself composed of
peat themselves. Memory is purely a nervous habit;
lar memory. Thus every act of perception supposes a
unconscious imitation of one's self by one's self. Society
abit not individual, but collective. What is the nature
, of this suggestion that constitutes the mental life?
. For if we consider this fact in its purity we are
enomenon much studied at present—somnambulism.
he books of Richet, Binet et Féré, Beaunis, Bernheim,
will be convinced that it is no fancy to regard social
le somnambule. The social state, like the hypnotic,
dream. Sympathy is mutual imitation, mutual pres-
o Adam Smith; prestige is at the base and origin of

gical and statistical considerations, history may be
ction of things that have been done most; that is to
hat have been imitated most. History is the destiny

gically or teleologically, (1) internal models will be
external, and (2) examples of persons, or classes, or
ered superior will take precedence over the inferior,
ty is sometimes attached to the present, sometimes the
werful cause of favor, of a considerable historical in-
ples of our fathers or of those of our contemporaries.

from the within to the without signifies two things:
on of ideas precedes that of expression; (2) that imita-
precedes that of means.

r nations which are imitated most are those in which
most reciprocal. A large city is characterized by an in-
al imitation in proportion to the density of population
n multiplicity of the relations of its inhabitants. Thus
emic and contagious character given not only to its
s styles and its views. Aristocratic classes were once
n analogous character, and to an eminent degree the

After considering, from the point of view of imitation, language, religion, government, legislation, usages and needs, morals and arts, the author finishes his work with some general remarks and corollaries:

The supreme law of imitation appears to be its own tendency to an indefinite progression. This sort of immanent ambition, which is the soul of the universe, and which is transformed physically by the luminous conquest of space, vitally by the claim of each species to fill the entire globe with its examples, seems to push each discovery or each invention (even the most insignificant individual innovation) to scatter itself indefinitely in the whole social field. But this tendency, when not seconded by logically and teleologically auxiliary inventions, or by the favor of certain prestiges, is hindered by diverse objects. These obstacles are either logical and teleological contradictions, or barriers which a thousand causes, principally prejudices and pride of race, have established between families, tribes, and people. It results from this that a good idea, arising in one of these groups, is propagated without trouble until it reaches the frontiers. But fortunately this arrest is only slackening of pace. War is often more a civilizer for the conquered than for the conqueror, for the former often borrows its ideas from the latter. Each germ of imitation in the brain of the imitator, under the form of a belief, aspiration, or idea, develops into exterior manifestations, into words, actions, which are impressed upon the nervous and muscular systems according to the law of march from within to without. Each act of imitation makes each new act more free and rational, more precise and rigorous. These conditions are the gradual suppression of barriers of caste, class, and nationality; the gradual diminution of distances by the rapidity of locomotion and the density of population. Suppose all these conditions reunited and pushed to the highest degree, the imitative transmission of a good initiative over all humanity would be almost instantaneous, like the propogation of a wave in a perfectly elastic medium. We are hastening to this strange ideal, and already we meet indications in the world of savants, where, although far separated, they touch each instant by mutiple international communications.

Ueber die historisch ethische Richtung in der Nationalokonomie, von Dr. FRANZ BERGHOFF ISING. Leipzig, 1889. pp. 11.

The author treats in brief of the origin, nature, and results of the historical ethical direction of national economy, in which the whole development of modern political economy is pictured anew. After a criticism of the directions of some of the contemporary political economists, the author concludes that the task of national economy in general can not be solved without the aid of speculative deduction. To say that such deduction has been made obsolete by the historical school is false; for, on the contrary, the importance of classical methods has been increased through the possibility of turning to good account formerly deficient historical and statistical material, in that the insight

embarrassment of the asylums. (3) That the attending physician should indicate the classes of patients who are in a state to receive family care, and that he should have the oversight of the agricultural colonies. At the end of the second volume is a very complete and methodical bibliography of over 300 pages on public and private charity in France and other countries.

Atti della Commissione Reale, per l'Inchiesta sulle Opere Pie. Roma. 1887. pp. 234.

A report from Italy concerning institutions and questions of charity is of special interest, since there pauperism is more typical.

This pamphlet contains the reports of the Royal Commission for inquiry into works of charity in Italy. It gives the deliberations of three sessions. We cite a few of the propositions concerning charity in general that were adopted by the commission: Merciful deeds are subject to all the present laws of the institutions of charity and beneficence, and are to aid the needy both in the state of health and disease, to bestow upon them assistance, to educate, instruct, or forward them in any profession, art, or trade. They are also subject to these laws, when they have in addition an ecclesiastical scope or are established exclusively in favor of persons which profess a recognized cultus in the state. In institutions of a mixed nature, persons or ecclesiastics who have control of them should hold a distinct administration and make a separation of returns and of patrimony in such a manner as shall be recognized as useful and opportune. But private estates administered by private individuals or in the name of a family, and exclusively intended for the benefit of one or more families designated by the founder, are not subject to the above-named laws. The same is also true in case of committees of aid and institutions, maintained by the temporary gifts of private individuals.

The report has, in full, the plan of the laws for the administration of charity, and is valuable for reference. The discussions of the several members of the commission are given somewhat in full.

Armenordnung fur die Stadt Elberfeld. pp. 30.

The "Poor Regulations" for the city of Elberfeld date from July, 1852. Elberfeld is a place of 119,200 inhabitants, situated in Rhenish Prussia. It is one of the most important manufacturing towns of Europe.

Here a systematic, practical, and we may say almost scientific method of treating the poor has been carried on for years. Some points in their book of regulations may be of value.

The city administration for the poor consists of a president, four city delegates, and four voting citizens, which are elected for three years by the municipal assembly. The city poor administration has the care of all the needy who raise a legal claim for aid from the civil community. As regards the care of such poor not received in the city institu-

istration is supported by 220 district directors and 308 egards the administration of the city institutions for ported by a specially chosen administrative deputation. s assigned to a certain ward of the city according to and every director to one out of 14 wards of the exist- e overseers of every district meet regularly and at een days with the district assembly under the presi- rict overseer or his representative. Every request for y's means must be brought by the overseer of that n which such request comes, who must make a careful gation into the conditions of the solicitor. All the city he poor and the sick are under the supervision of a rative deputation. They are the poor house, orphan on for deserted children, hospital, place for epidemic sane asylum. Members of this deputation are elected s from officials and citizens.

e needy and capable of work, so far as they are not rs, must be aided by the city. The money requisite lly dependent family, including food, shelter, clothing, as follows:

	Cents.
.....	75
.....	50
years.....	50
to 15 years	45
o 10 years.....	33
o 5 years	27
n 1 year old	20

$3 a week for a family. Each overseer should not as ge of more than four poor (single or head of families). of this organization has been very wide. Many cities e made the Elberfeld system its model. The following taken from the report of 1888–'89:

Elberfeld.

ear.	Expenses.	Population.	Cost per citizen.	Average number of family helped.
	Marks.		*Marks.*	
.....	70, 654. 75	50, 418	1. 40	.....
.....	63, 711. 65	59, 774	1. 06	542
.....	70, 279. 03	78, 000	.90	437
.....	150, 633. 56	58, 100	1.52	828
.....	166, 221. 94	113, 000	1. 47	840
.....	161, 706. 01	119, 200	1. 36	844

ner Asyl-Verein für Obdachlose. Berlin, 1882. pp. 71.

m for this society was built in Berlin in 1868. The furnish shelter to those without it, and to aid such ning employment. The principal work is to provide

shelter for a night or few nights. Some of the rules are: The asylum can not be used by the same person oftener than three times a month. Every one on entering must wash his hands and face. All card-playing, smoking, and drinking is expressly forbidden, the penalty being immediate expulsion. From 1869 to 1881 inclusive, 214,313 women and children were cared for, averaging 46 per night, at a cost of ten cents a person, making the whole expense $21,201.12. During the same period 871,507 men were cared for, averaging 215 per night, at a cost of five cents per person.

Der Centralverein für das Wohl der arbeitenden Klassen. Bericht über seine Entwickelung und Thätigkeit von 1844 bis 1883. Berlin, 1883. pp. 15.

The second half of the nineteenth century, after a series of bloody wars, seems to be called to the solution of social questions. The principal aim of modern statemanship is to further the well being of the masses. Society and all its members are to work with the state. Employers are not merely to appropriate technical progress and utilize the forces of nature and capital, but are to strive towards a moral ideal. They are not to produce goods only, but to make men happy. Such in general are the ideas of "The Central Association for the Well-being of the Working Classes," at Berlin. The right of corporation was granted to this society in 1848. The association through experience has found that its purpose is not so much to lead or to regulate, as it is to quicken, to mediate, to gather together. One of its practical aims is the founding of healthy and suitable dwellings for workmen, air, light, and warmth being the main considerations.

Das System der communalen Naturalverpflegung armer Reisender zu Bekämpfung der Wanderbettelei, von CARL HOZEL. Stuttgart, 1883. pp. 114.

The author considers the system of communal care of vagrants, having principally in view the past experiences of Würtemberg.

The organization of this society in Germany was enlarged in 1882. There were two systems, one, the "Community System," where there was a station for food and shelter for the night; the other, the "Station System," where they were farther apart, from 5 to 10 miles. The vagrants or tramps were warned, through public placards, from begging or looking around, and were invited to apply to the local overseer or to the next relief station. There is no special way of relief or manner of giving it common to all the districts, except that no order is given for alcoholic drinks. The city of Herford has a model system for treatment of tramps. The following are some of its rules: No money is given out. Work is provided, which everyone who receives a ticket of aid must engage in. Tramps do not like this method, but this fact rather recommends it.

Lane, by T. W. Fowle, M. A. London, 1880. pp. 175.

efer to those who are actually destitute, or those who
re if not for manual labor, which constitutes them
the chief source of the wealth of mankind. "Poor"
xcite compassion has hitherto been used only for those
r, but to call those poor who must labor or the world
o trifle with the condition of mankind. "Indigence"
person unable to labor, or unable to obtain in return
means of subsistence. Poverty is used to describe the
n order to obtain a mere subsistence, is forced to have
r.

s the same kind of difficulties concerning the support
ave been encountered, the same sort of remedies tried,
intul and disappointing experience gone through.
on two reasons why the poor laws are a necessary part
ation: one is that all men have a natural right to the
tence; the other is that society is compelled, in the
ovn self preservation, to take some care of destitute
bod of the community and not the rights of individuals
e use of legal provision for destitution. In all coun
g slation has been devised to meet certain plain and
at were existing society. Moral or humanitarian
re as necessary to the well being of society as mate
conditions, and could establish a system of state
ould be [illegible] as a matter of policy or economy,
n [illegible] Either [illegible] we choose to call the
[illegible] This law is by
[illegible] society, upon arriving at a
[illegible] necessary for its [illegible]
[illegible] humanity and for
[illegible] society exists to pro
[illegible] or what may be
[illegible] necessities of exist

[illegible] It teaches
[illegible] ation, what
[illegible] the
[illegible] giving classes
[illegible] and kindness
[illegible] beggars are
[illegible] society they are

[illegible] of humanity
[illegible] parsimony with
[illegible] and itself, with

out affording some assurance that the bodily wants, which drive persons to these courses were not altogether provided for at the public cost. As the social convenience became more mature, there was a dim and indistinct feeling that pauperism and crime could not be laid to such individuals so much, for it had, to a large extent, grown out of the selfish neglect or mischievous ignorance of the nation itself. So it is with the evident injustice from state interference with the work and wages of the laboring classes, and from state noninterferrence with their dwellings and surroundings. The idea of the natural operation of humanity, as a thing due from society to its own self respect, is to be found as the principle of poor-law administration in all countries. Every destitute person has a right to relief, not because his miserable condition gives him a title to it (an obsolete idea suitable only to primitive stages of social growth), but because the state has made for its own purposes a contract to stand between its citizens and death by starvation. The motive of state relief is primarily and chiefly the welfare of the giver; but the motive of private charity ceases to be charity if the giver puts his own comfort or interests higher than the needs of the recipient. Hence there is no such thing as legal charity, and we are not to look to a system of state relief for moral graces, such as gratitude from the recipient or liberality from the official giver who dispenses other people's money. At present the true statement of the case would seem to be that the selfishness of the upper classes took advantage of the growing spirit of humanity, and made a kind of tacit bargain with it whereby, upon condition that localities provided for the relief of the "impotent," they were authorized to reduce the able-bodied laborer to a state of practical slavery under the idea of setting him to work. Thus compulsory provision for the impotent and for setting to work the able-bodied is a description of the origin of poor laws in England.

As to the legal relief of the poor, the condition of the pauper is less eligible than that of the independent laborer, otherwise the law destroys the strongest motives to good conduct, steady industry, and frugality among the laboring classes. There should be relief for the destitute, but so that their condition shall be worse than if they had taken pains to support themselves. But there are deteriorating effects which can not always be met by measures directed against abuses by individuals, partly because when the state has interfered between men and the natural consequences of their own behavior it can not help being drawn into further measures on their behalf. Thus another object arises, which is to prevent the pauperizing effects of state relief by measures calculated to raise the condition of the working classes.

While the attempts to classify poor laws according to the systems of various nations are of doubtful value, yet there is a broad distinction between the Teutonic or Scandinavian and Protestant nations of the

atin or Catholic nations of the south. Before the Refor-
as no poor law at all, but only a series of enactments
revolting severity against pauperism, especially in the
y, and another series more detestable against the rights
The indigent and miserable were left to the care of the
survival of mediæval arrangements we must look to
pire, in which (Mahomet having exhorted his people to
o the poor, not to oppress the orphan, nor repulse the
lief is still expressly associated with religious institu-
ime of the Reformation the altered relation between
h and the conception of a national church caused the
me of the functions of the church, so that we find a
the state that each parish should maintain its own poor.
rope, however, things remained the same until the
ion, after which there resulted what may be called an
y, with each local commune for the area of administra-
spread until it is the present state of things.

l is raised in many ways. Norway levies a tax on cards,
; Leipzig sends around subscription collectors; Austria
of the property of Catholic clergymen who die intestate;
a contribution from newly created cardinals; France
rial grounds, theaters, pawnshops (so also in Italy), and
e makes much out of the sale of candles, and to crown
d a single caged nightingale pays five thalers a year to
t Elberfeld.

d conditions of indigence are everywhere the same and
ne classes of pauperized persons:

tent, who suffer from no fault of their own: (*a*) constitu-
(*b*) imbeciles, (*c*) fatherless children.

tent, who might have done better: (*d*) the aged, (*e*) per-
(*f*) lying-in women (unmarried).

bodied out of work: (*g*) from lack of employment, (*h*)
illness, (*i*) insufficient wages.

ied, who prefer idleness: (*j*) mendicants and (*k*) va-

ed widows, who can not maintain their families.

elief are—

enerally for the impotent), comprising (*a*) poor houses,
asylums, (*d*) schools including reformatories, (*e*) vagrant

relief, including (*f*) gifts of money, (*g*) gifts in kind, (*h*)
yment, (*i*) apprenticing of children, (*j*) medical attend-
and (*l*) boarding out (partaking of outdoor relief some).

arison of facts, there is a growing conviction that the
erism depends not upon the circumstances of the work-

ing classes, but upon the facility with which help may be obtained. Belgium, where the communes possess the largest charitable resources, has the most paupers; Luxembourg, with next to no resources, has also next to no pauperism.

Repressive measures (chronologically arranged) have been: (*a*) Punishment, now confined to vagrants, imposters, and incorrigibles; (*b*) settlement, or the first limitation of the conditions upon which relief was given; (*c*) compulsory maintenance, including payments by friends or repayments by pauper himself.

Direct repression includes: (*d*) House test, (*e*) labor test, (*f*) correctional houses, (*g*) criminal punishment, (*h*) investigation.

As to remedial measures, although the theory of legislation is to raise the working classes above the need of pauperisms, the practice of those engaged in the work is rather the elevation of the physical and moral condition of the indigent, their operations being confined to the giving of relief.

The difficulties, faults, remedies, and statistics for the last ten years have been about the same. Comparing returns we have:

	Expenditure			Paupers					Per cent of population (in 1,000).
	Aggregate.	Per head of population		Indoor.	Out door.	Total	Able bodied	Lunatics.	Vagrants.	
	£	s.	d.							
1880	£8,015,010	6	3¼	180,817	627,213	808,030	115,785	64,470	5,914	31.8
Report for 1889	8,440,821	5	11¾	192,105	603,512	795,617	98,817	75,581	7,058	27.8

As to outdoor relief, Dorset has 48.4 per 1,000 (the highest), and yet this is an agricultural county. This shows alone that bad times, high prices, are as nothing compared with the effects of good and bad administrations in causing poverty. As surely as the death rate depends upon sanitary administration, so surely does pauperism depend upon the way in which the guardians discharge their duties. We can not destroy pauperism any more than we can death, but we may reduce it to a minimum.

As to boarding out children, the great majority of foster parents take them for the sake of profit.

The poor law affords to man, *qua* destitute, a maintenance under conditions lowering to his humanity. Socialism claims for each man, *qua* human, a full share in the common good. There is no abstract reason why socialism may not be right, but if it works by poor-law agencies it is a contradiction in terms.

Children of the State, by FLORENCE DAVENPORT HILL, edited by Fanny Fowke. London, 1889. pp. 370.

The editor says that increased opportunities have shown that the scheme of boarding-out pauper children, which is advocated, is the dominant system in many countries.

by which the value of different methods of training
hould be estimated is the greater or less excess in
three objects: (1) Of depauperizing the children by
to take their place on an equal footing among the
f the laboring classes; (2) of securing to them the
of persons able to afford protection and advice in their
difficulties; (3) of affording such conditions of happi-
l as are consonant with justifiable expenditure from
. The more the life of pauper children differs from
-a-day world, the more difficult do they find it to
s to the world, when they enter it to earn their living.
hment with a large staff of officers, etc., can not rightly
ates to take and hold their place among our working
children, just as prisoners, need better food than free
them in health and strength. The low death rate of
is misleading; for infants, during the period of life
is highest are excluded, while children suffering from
are retained in the workhouse infirmary. In the pauper
dismissed at fourteen; no home being offered them,
to return to their early associations; but here is a
state guardianship through pauper schools. The con-
hools, lack of satisfaction of childish tastes, absence of
periences, and discovery, nature's educational atmos-
requent "please let me go home," indicate the defects
ons, which are a heavy financial burden to society and
ir purpose.

out system is the most natural, and although not with-
often exaggerated) is the one that gives the best results.

Abandonnés et Délaissés. Paris, 1885. pp. 791; *De l'Assistance des*
s XIXe Siècle, par LÉON LALLEMAND. Paris, 1889. pp. 164.

on the history of abandoned children is a prize essay
"Academy of Moral and Political Science" at Paris.
n out by the "Academy" was: "Concerning the pro-
y in regard to children found and assisted, or abandoned
." "To inquire how, either in antiquity or among mod-
problem has been determined. To indicate what would
s of solving the same to-day.

ivilizations it was a general custom to offer children as
Greeks and Romans made utility to the state and fam-
Is the newly born of robust appearance? Does the
scendants? The child is preserved. The feeble were
d, especially the girls, because the boys could inherit
ntinue the worship of their ancestors. Children were
l after a war, because of the fear of want of slaves.
at birth for future prostitution.

But the church interfered, and its benevolent action was more and more efficacious. Hospitals were opened for the abandoned. Such institutions were not known in the Occident till perhaps the eighth century. Later the feudal system, notably in France, assured the existence of abandoned children. From the twelfth century on, hospitals increased rapidly in the east of France, in Italy, and Germany.

In the sixteenth century there was a marked change. Those countries remaining Catholic supported their foundling hospitals as before, but among the Protestants such institutions were not so well supported as before, for the riches of the clergy and the poor had been thrown to the winds, so that the work fell upon the communes or parishes, and children abandoned were confounded with the mass of indigent.

Thus modern nations are separated into two fields as regards the organization of aid for children. The Catholics follow the ancient rules with variations in details. Yet at present there is a tendency to unification in all countries as regards measures for assistance.

It is a fact among all nations that the majority of the infant population given public assistance belongs to the category of illegitimate children. First, then, these must be reduced if the number of foundlings is to be lessened. Second, the maiden mothers must be furnished the means to bring up their children without recourse to public assistance. Third, the number of natural conceptions should be restrained. Society should keep the secret when one implores; in other cases (the most ordinary) society should make her voice heard before every attachment is broken between mother and child, and whenever a woman has decided to abandon a child, the interest of the little one requires that society take charge of it. Maiden mothers, upon whom it is necessary to impose aid, who have no desire to bring up their children, but rather sell their food, letting the children die or bringing them up in vice, should not be allowed to take care of their children. It is much better that a nurse, under the care of the administration, take the child in charge.

The author classifies children receiving public aid as follows: (1) Natural or legitimate orphans; (2) abandoned legitimate children; (3) children of parents in prison; (4) nurslings whose nurses are no more paid, often on account of the disappearance of the parents; (5) children of women publicly leading a fast life.

In the second work on the "Assistance of the Rural Classes" the author makes it the duty of governments and of private individuals to struggle without mercy against the attacks of pauperism, which gnaws and destroys nations. Direct means are unavailing. One must go to the source of the evil. The popularizing of moral and religious beliefs, a wise administration of the public funds, the natural patronage of the well-to-do permit the working classes to live without the shocks of social agitators and assure a progressive amelioration, which sudden convulsions are powerless to bring about. Preventive means are therefore above all others. There should be one object, and that is the

ation of democracy. To-day a transformation is being
wentieth century will have to solve the definite coming
lasses to the direct exercise of power. The earth and
ated always according to reality. Industry departs
aotic state. The soil belongs more and more to him
. The time must be hastened when the machine shall
orer. This imposes upon us to avoid bloody struggles.
and interest can only give fatal advice. Each false
ery to thousands and increases the difficulties of the

presents immense dangers; it annihilates all initiative
es families, almost fatally inscribed, from father to son,
rity; and in face of the right to work and the right to
claimed that the alleviation of indigence constitutes
y for society.

r the burden and heat of the day, to whom we owe our
a right to all our compassion. This thought has con-
us, for we have seen the aged workers of agriculture
om misery upon a squalid bed, after they had dug the
ears.

endicity caused by special circumstances is no crime,
mendicity graduated penalties are necessary. Social-
scaped nor misery diminished until there is a regular
cal and social liberty with respect to the imprescript-
vinity. The experience of centuries confirms the uni-
si Dominus ædificaverit domum in vanum laboraverunt
.

ort of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity of Massachusetts.
Boston, 1891. pp. 289.

merica, but in Europe, the State of Massachusetts is
foremost in its methods and institutions for charity.
for kindness towards the poor is liable to suffer from
case of a State as in an individual. This fact is illus-
port for the last year. Nearly half a million dollars
nt upon needy persons who, from various reasons, fail
lement within the State. The report would indicate
as a temptation for neighboring States to evade their
poor who belong to them; it recommends for settle-
ces between Massachusetts and neighboring States as
professional paupers, who migrate from State to State,
y poor without settlement, that the legislature insti-
n to consider the whole subject.

ecommendation is that Congress be "invoked to pro-
States from the transportation into their territories
s of passengers, who are convicts, lunatics, idiots, or
are of themselves without becoming a public charge."

A few varied facts in the report are: Thirty thousand eight hundred and two immigrants arrived at Boston within the year, 12,010 of whom had no occupation, and 21,300 were destined for Massachusetts. A question of some importance is the disposition to be made of cases of unmarried pregnant women coming from Great Britain and its American dependencies, many of whom have their passage money paid by interested persons, the burden of their support being thrown upon the State. Out of a total of 404 sane women provided for by the State, 143 were thus cared for because of illegitimate pregnancy. Of these, 14 were born of American parents in the United States, 12 in the United States of foreign born parents, and 117 were born in a foreign land. Girls above the age of 14 years, whose unchaste tendencies seem almost impossible to overcome, should not be placed at service in families unless the influences of their own homes are absolutely corrupting. Of the 4,287 notices received on account of the sick State poor, 78 were cases of disease dangerous to the public health, covering 197 forms and 104 patients. These notices were sent from 30 cities and towns; 20 being cases of smallpox, 13 scarlet fever, 24 diphtheria, 14 typhoid fever, 1 case of leprosy, and 4 of measles. Seven of the cases were fatal. So-called adoption is a serious evil in connection with baby farming. The ordinary procedure is to put an advertisement in a newspaper, or the information is spread in different ways, that infants are wanted for adoption at such a place. Children, presumably illegitimate, are brought in large numbers and a fee, generally from $10 to $25 in each case, is paid by the mother who signs a document purporting to be a release of all claim to the child. That is the last the mother ever knows or can know of the child. The infant is disposed of in various ways. Sometimes it is given to the first person who will take it; but more frequently many are probably the foundlings which the State has been called upon to support. It is believed also that many, if not most of the dead bodies of infants, found in the streets, parks, sewers, etc., come in this way. It is recommended that further legislation put a stop to procuring so called adoptions by irresponsible persons. The number of good families applying for young children to adopt is still in excess of the number of children eligible for adoption. More applications for infants to board are received than can be supplied. The entire amount expended for outdoor-poor relief during the official year was $98,656.86. Evidence shows an increase of insanity in the State out of proportion to increase in the general population; the actual number of insane under observation was 5,652. Twenty eight thousand four hundred and ninety-five tramps were lodged at almshouses throughout the State at an expense of $6,370.76; their disposal is a serious question, their presence is a decided injury to the almshouses. Some historical facts may be mentioned: In 1764 the town of Boston declined to accept a legacy "for a convenient house for unhappy persons as it shall please God in

deprive of their reason;" in 1818 McLean Asylum was
establishment undertaken by the State was the Wor
ned in January, 1855. The inmates of the pauper de
few exceptions, aged, infirm, crippled, or otherwise
to assist in farm work or other manual labor.
nber of paupers fully supported of the city and town
whole number fully supported is 13,099; the whole
supported is 15,487, and the total expenses reported

[illegible] *Materialien zur Armen-Reform* von Dr. Emil Münsterberg [illegible] 1887 pp. 570.

rhor treats of Germany especially, he has nevertheless
he most systematic presentations of the whole sub
egislation. The work is divided into three parts
review of the literature and statistics and of the his
nt of poor law legislation in Germany. The general
such legislation and its relation to voluntary care for
lered. In the second part the financial and socio
poor-relief legislation are described. The third part
ation of the present attempts at reforms.
or in social or political life which if directly or indi
with a system of poor laws might not be of influence
ral genesis and its remedy. Those who seek for help
[illegible] that they are aided not because they desire
[illegible] and therefore they should not
[illegible]

adapted to the particular conditions of the needy who are capable of working? In such cases support should be given only for work performed.

The author emphasizes throughout the book the necessity of a thorough study and treatment of each case. Thus with the pauper, as with the criminal, the general utility of the individual method is confirmed.

Stenographischer Bericht über die Verhandlungen der zehnten Jahresversammlung des deutschen Vereins für Armenpflege und Wohlthätigkeit. Leipzig, 1890. pp. 152.

The conclusions of the tenth annual meeting of the German Association for Charities are: (1) It is an opportune arrangement of university clinics, for the careful training of physicians in psychiatry, to make possible and safe a rational treatment and practical control of the acute, incurable, and harmless insane who are dismissed from the asylums; (2) new State insane asylums should be built as agricultural institutions, on the pavilion plan, in such a way as to have a smaller central building, which should be made according to the plan of modern insane asylums, and consist of the necessary reception, surveillance, and hospital divisions, specially separated yet in convenient connection, according to the open-door system of the industrial and agricultural colonies for the sick who are trustworthy; (3) for incurable harmless patients who do not need the care of an asylum, where restoration to home relations is not possible, or for medical reasons is not feasible, the so-called system of family care of insane is to be recommended as an annex to the present insane asylum; (4) incurable and sickly patients and those incapable of work should be put into the charge of agricultural institutions or infirmaries.

Régime et Législation de l'Assistance Publique et Privée en France par LÉON BÉQUET. Paris, 1885. pp. 397.

The object of this work is to make known the organization of charity in France. The following are the general ideas underlying this organization:

Misery is not an accident of yesterday; it is born with man; it clings to original feebleness, to accidental infirmity, to spontaneous vice, to persistent improvidence, which will not be cured until the time (if that ever arrives) when by natural selection man shall be born and remain strong, healthy, industrious, and economical. If the extinction of misery can never be assured, the alleviation of the evil may be sought after. The ancient Homeric heroes, though cruel to their enemies, were charitable to their patients, and it was with whole quarters of beef that they appeased the hunger of the wretched.

The principles of French legislation as to charity were adopted by the national assembly in 1789. Charity was here considered as an inviolable and sacred duty but this social duty had as its correlative

ndividual to work. The poor who were able-bodied
that which was strictly necessary for existence; if
refused this it was guilty. The sick invalids alone
mplete support. For, if it is the duty of each man
bute to the subsistence of him who does not earn
ntribution required by society beyond indispensable
s a violation of property and consequently an in-
nciples serve as a basis for modern legislation in the
of charitable work. A principle formally decreed
y this assembly is that charity is a charge of the
above all a charge of the fraction of the nation in
the individual lives who seeks aid.
s a vast family, and the duties of solidarity are in
ies of life and common interest. According to the
assistance should come from the natural family first,
re, successively from the commune, province (*départe-*

right to aid? Yes; for the social contract gives every
ast to bare subsistence. Without doubt, also, man
this contract; but if work can not be found and he is
rce society should find him work or give him subsist-
le to sell his right to live, society must assure him of
duty of society is based on justice rather than on
ay be said that man unites with society not to assure
t to protect it; as long as society guarantees material
s duty. If society were obliged to assure subsist.
e each man to work; but forced labor involves the
liberty. Now the social contract does not permit the
y. Man is free to work or not, and if he voluntarily
ciety is not bound to support him. If the individual
not work, society here also is not bound to give assist-
contract only assured material tranquillity and free.

f view really says that the society of which no duty
not bound to aid each one of its own members to
uble with this sort of argument is that a contract
sly assented to. These contracts do not constitute
are conventional. They do not create rights. Man
ure his existence, not to defend it.

ätigkeit in der alten Kirche. Stuttgart, 1882. pp. 421; und *Die*
gkeit im Mittelalter. Stuttgart, 1884. pp. 529; von G. Ahlhorn,

hat is written about charity is not distinctively from
of view, yet the most that is done comes from the
the church.

These two works are a historical and popular treatment of charity from the religious point of view. In his first work the author considers charitable institutions of the ancient church, adding many general principles based on biblical grounds. In the second book he treats of similar institutions in the middle ages. The workers for charity with unbroken yet crude powers took the places of the ancient church workers. It was the task of the church to educate them. Hospital and cloister were secondary to the house of God. In the hospital it was love; in the cloister, work. The church made no difference between Germans and Romans. For the Romans' charity was an old custom, but a new enterprise for the Germans. The cloisters were everywhere the starting point of a new culture in which Christianity took deeper root than in the Romish Church. The church life of the middle ages developed into fullness what was already present in germ. It took the ethical view of riches and poverty. No time has done so much for the poor as the middle ages. But it brought with it a one-sided and unhealthy development of tendencies already present. The communal care of the poor went fully under; all charity became regulative; in the place of deacons were monks and nuns or the members of orders; one-sided regulative, it became also one sided churchly. The church was the ground of all alms giving, all stipends, all self denial, the only welfare of the soul. The change is complete; man gives and serves no more in order in Christ to serve and help the poor, but to gain for himself and his own a higher degree of blessedness and deliverance from purgatory. The result was poverty was not opposed, but cared for, and with all the rich gifts and endowments the church was not master. The middle ages show that, like the whole Christian life, charity no more sprang from the gospel, but was influenced by foreign, Judaic, and ancient elements. It was the Reformation which led back again to the original sources that made alive again the pure Christian thoughts of riches and poverty, of prosperity and alms, of work and calling. These thoughts are far from being worked out at present; the church at present is behind according to the knowledge that has been given it. It has yet to realize again the evangelical thoughts on charity and the poor in connection with calling and work, gain and prosperity.

L'Assistance Publique en Allemagne, par P. A. Le Roy. Paris 1890. pp. 131.

At the end of the Middle Ages the feudal lords took care of their vassals. But in Germany, from the time of the Reformation, the church, deprived of a great part of its riches by the Protestant princes, became powerless. From this time the legislation of the different states imposed upon all the communities the burden of public relief. However, the right to aid rested subordinate to naturalization. The communities were therefore protected against new arrivals. The year 1866 put an end to this regime. Prussia, having become the ruler of Germany, endeavored to unify it. In 1867 William, King of Prussia,

German Confederation, promulgated the law. The law
l residence (Freizügigkeits-Gesetz) confers upon every
r be his origin, the right to circulate, establish himself,
any profession in any part of Germany. This law
gration from the country into the city. In 1870 there
aw, which had for its object to prevent the increase of
ritable purposes. But the expenses kept increasing.
nd 1884, obligatory insurance offices against diseases
work were founded, giving to the exclusive charge of
rons, all the expenses coming from such causes. This
taxation without opposition is to be noted. None of
me upon the state or community. The law fixes the
much superior to that given by municipal charities
the poor (*Armen verbände*).

ws clearly in what way German legislation solves the
nsibility in cases of accidents to workingmen, and
it has united patrons and laborers, deciding what are
enses, and what payment is due to the victims of acci-
or was appointed by France to study German methods
is book is the result of his study.

f the Seventeenth National Conference of Charities and Corrections. Baltimore, 1890. pp. 53.

enty-eight societies in the United States operated
by charity-organization methods. The prospect of
terest in charity organization is not encouraging.
ty-six of these societies, which seem sufficiently relia-
sult of the year's work, 5,821 cases of unnecessary or
f; 1,560 frauds suppressed, by which 1,807 families
endent of relief of any kind. It cost $23.32 each to
rauds and to prevent the unworthy from obtaining
e same basis it cost $95.27 each to make the 1,807
orting. The cost for work with all classes was $18.74
nson's figures of the difference in economic value
earner and a pauper will show that from the business
ty organization is a financial success.

which disburse relief in large cities do so rather from
which first attaches to any nonrelief-giving society
e name of charity; yet a charity organization society
st which gives no relief. Relief giving of a central
s the contact of giver and receiver, the very thing
charity tries to produce. Nothing is more unfortunate
han the undue multiplication of charitable enterprises.
d need for reliable statistics, that scientific charity
d.

27 American cities of upwards of 10,000 population,
149 engaged in charitable work on the old method,

which probably makes paupers as fast as the 78 other cities suppress them. Twenty four societies show among paupers 14 per cent of American birth, mostly coming from small communities where no scientific methods exist. The large cities have enough with their 56 per cent of foreign paupers without having the home grown come to them also. The American pauper should be cared for where he originates. Scientific methods must cure the evils in small communities.

Proceedings of the Sixteenth Annual Convention of the County Superintendents of the Poor of the State of New York. Fredonia, 1886. pp. 141

Superintendent McGonegal, of Monroe County, in his report of the committee on the prevention of pauperism, says that entire prevention of pauperism is impossible, for there are many conditions tending to make people dependent upon the more fortunate class for the necessities of life. Others become dependent from circumstances not only not under their control, but which no amount of discretion, caution, or economy could have prevented.

The main causes of pauperism are: (1) Intemperate use of alcoholic liquors; (2) importation to this country of foreign paupers and criminals; (3) injudicious manner of giving outdoor relief; (4) scarcity of employment for the laboring classes during the winter seasons; (5) encouragement given to tramps by being fed and lodged at the public expense.

As to prevention, the first cause, probably producing directly or indirectly nine tenths of all the pauperism, is practically such an extensive one that its removal would almost empty our almshouses. There is little encouragement in working for confirmed drunkards or chronic paupers. The only prospect of success is with children and youth. The more odious drunkenness and pauperism are made in the eyes of children the better. Liquor, so much in quantity, brings so much money and consequent political power, that to overcome this cause seems at present impossible. European nations, especially England, have availed themselves of the opportunity of sending us their vicious, indolent, and paupers. It has been well advertised throughout Ireland that the Government would furnish free transportation to America, and agents were sent around; on this side they were given money by English agents to enable them to scatter into different localities to avoid being returned as paupers. In Monroe County 60 per cent of the paupers are foreign born. Those out of work in winter should be given work rather than provisions by the State. Feeding of tramps is not only expensive but dangerous, as they commit all sorts of depredations. They should be arrested, examined, and put in the almshouse or penitentiary.

Pauperism: Its Effect on the Life of Society in America. By Dr. F. A. Ascmann. Baltimore. 1886. pp. 17

The author, who is well known for his book concerning English poor laws, treats also questions of charity in America. In speaking of America's experience as viewed from a German standpoint, he calls at-

nsformation of outdoor relief and the changed treat-
ildren, because these are two points in which the
ublic and private charity have shown their usefulness
tes. The poor relief in the United States has a prac-
Germany. In England, as in America, there is a
alization, but there is an inclination to give as much
ble to local boards for poor relief. This fact should
t least Prussia, in the establisment of a central board.
assed England in regard to private charity as a factor
nprovements in the department of poor relief. The
ation and organization of private charity is growing
ressing in Germany.

l determination of the causes of poverty. A. G. WARNER. American Statistical Association. March, 1889.

re some of the conclusions of the writer: The method
is likely to exaggerate subjective influences as com-
tive; thus the immediate cause of poverty may be
haracter, the primary cause environment. Confusion
the fact that under exactly similar conditions some
ute and some not. From Mr. Booth's statistical tables
ve find that casual laborers comprise but 4.8 per cent
lation, but more than 41 per cent of "the very poor;"
ng female heads include 3.7 per cent of the whole pop-
sh more than 11 per cent of "the very poor," and more
f "the poor." Mr. Booth says that intemperance is
use in many cases where it can not be reckoned the
t the poverty of the poor is mainly the result of the
very poor. The entire removal of this class out of the
existence is the only solution of the problem of pov-
our own country, Mr. Kellogg, from figures gleaned
of about forty charity organization societies in our
ds in New York and Boston that the percentage of
rk, rather than relief, has been 53.4, and of the un-
e-third of the cases actually treated were in need of
ce, for which friendly counsel or restraint could not
ogical application to the whole country is that two-
or simulated destitution could be stopped by a more
t of the supply and demand for labor, and a more
ightened police administration. Dugdale concludes,
he Jukes, that environment is the primary cause, and
anized result of invariable environment.

ntitled "Scientific Charity," in the Popular Science
ust, 1889, Dr. Warner illustrates the importance of
thod as applied to charity. Scientific charity, as
emotional philanthropy, regards poverty as an evil

thology and Education in Report of the Yonkers, 1888-89.

to be assailed in its causes; it does not merely pity poverty, but studies it. Thirty-four charity organization societies, representing cities containing one-eighth of our population, and probably one-sixth of its pauperism reported at the national conference in 1887. From careful estimates, it is supposed that these cities contained about 450,000 paupers. Over 62 per cent of this number actually came under the charge of these societies—that is, they had 57,000 families, containing about 285,000 persons, to deal with. Twenty-five of these societies agreed in classifying under four heads. By careful analysis of nearly 28,000 cases, including over 100,000 persons, the results were as follows:

	Per cent.
Those needing continuous relief	10.3
Those needing temporary relief	26.6
Those needing work rather than relief	40.4
Unworthy of relief	22.7

As an example of the value of more elaborated figures, the results of the Buffalo society are given, on a basis of 1,407 families, including 5,388 persons. The chief cause of destitution was lack of employment in 263 cases, sickness in 326, no male support in 373, intemperance in 124, physical defects in 113, insufficient earnings in 87, accidents in 45, imprisonment of bread-winner in 35, shiftlessness in 26, and insanity in 15. Out of these 1,407 destitute families, the respective heads of 1,019 of them could both read and write; 49 others could read, but not write; and 339, or 24 per cent, were wholly illiterate. It is interesting to recognize that by this method the philanthropist, with the principle of enlightened self sacrifice finds himself in accord with the economist, with his enlightened self interest.

CHAPTER VII.

-FIRST ANNUAL CONGRESS OF THE NATIONAL OCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES, AT BALTI- MBER 1892

congress of the association at Baltimore there were dred and twenty delegates present, coming from all ited States and Canada.

res ideas that received special emphasis at the con- the re should be less sentimentalism, and sterner prison- hat all prisons should be reformatory prisons; 3 that od of preventing crime is treatment and care of children. was that in the future the treatment of the criminal hools, workshops, reformatories, and hospitals. There rsal agreement as to the evils of immigration. But as fuller idea of the views advocated we give selections ses of the speakers themselves.

rd B. Hayes, president of the Prison Association, said:

years of age. Therefore the training of the young is the most indispensable duty and chief business of every generation.

I must not leave the discussion of our subject without attempting to spread before you a part at least of the answer to the question: With all that the law and voluntary societies have done for the improvement of criminal jurisprudence in the United States, why do we not see greater and better results? My reply is that among our people of American birth and parentage a careful reading of the statistics for the past generation will show that crime has largely diminished and is still decreasing. Strike from the appalling catalogue of crime in our country all of the lawbreaking due to the immigration of recent years, and the claims of prison reform in the United States will be amply vindicated. The crimes of Europe are laid at our doors.

Five millions of immigrants in each decade are now landed in America. A high authority (Mr. Wines) places the number of the criminal and defective classes in the United States at one in a hundred of the total population. The proportion among the immigrants of recent years is believed to be much greater.

It has been estimated as high as thirty in a hundred among the inhabitants of some of the European countries from which in late years the emigration has largely increased.

One of the capital defects of corporations, trusts, and labor unions is their secrecy. Secrecy often leads to crime. For example, consider the crime of embezzlement, which has grown to be so common that we expect to see some marked case in every morning newspaper. It is mainly due to the omission of careful, constant, and thorough inspection of the work and accounts of all subordinates trusted with funds. This neglect does indeed lead men into temptation, and the managers of banks, railroads, and insurance companies must share in some degree the guilt of the men under them.

One remedy for this evil thus briefly sketched is found in voluntary associations of citizens interested in the welfare of their less fortunate fellow-men, where intelligent discussions are open, free, and public; where the press and its representatives are always welcome, and where the effort and the tendency are to counteract that indifference to the condition of the poor and needy which is at last the enemy most to be dreaded in a free country, namely, the apathy of good citizens with respect to the evils which do not seem directly to concern themselves.

Rev. Dr. Wayland said:

I shall not touch upon the obstacles existing in the nature of the prisoners, but shall limit myself to those which are found in the community at large. Although it is needless, so far as you are concerned, yet for my own guidance I will raise the inquiry, "What do we mean by prison reform?" We do not mean merely a reconstruction of the prison buildings, nor a replacement of the officials, nor the enactment of new laws.

We use the word prison in the largest sense, as embracing the whole of our penal machinery—prisons, officials, legislatures, governors, boards, cells, workshops. The purpose of the prison is not to punish but to promote the safety and welfare of the community, and that this safety and welfare can be subserved in the most economical and effective manner by the reformation of the imprisoned, humanity, patriotism, and economy speak with one voice. Prison reform, then, consists in removing from the prisons everything which conflicts with this design and in making the whole prison system an instrument for the permanent reformation of the criminal.

The first obstacle we meet is indifference or negative selfishness. We do not realize that these men belong to an increasing class who menace our homes and our lives, and who may easily menace our civilization and our existence. We do not realize that in mere money they involve an annual charge of $100,000,000, a sum which, turned into other channels, would mean employment for all our mills, demand for our products, wages and bread for a million homes.

We do not feel, because we do not know. In our ignorance we allow ourselves to

minal is merely a victim of ancestry and of surroundings; that he
e of crime by an inexorable necessity; that criminality is a dis
mitted, perhaps contracted; that the criminal is not guilty but
that he is not an object of condemnation but only of commisera
is the resultant of three factors: his ancestors, his surroundings
ty. No man can be forced into crime. The responsibility of the
divided among these factors. It is one of the most tremendous
that, by every action, every impulse, every thought, every temp
victorious, we are fastening not only ourselves but those wh
in remote generations.

to prison reform lies in positive selfishness. We want to make
he criminal. We want, as a prime object, to make the prisons
as to lessen our burdens. I believe it is possible, under the best
ake the prisons pay their way, and this should be done in just so
Self-support should never be an object at the expense of justice
the best interests of the community. We want to make all we
on for our party; and so men are put in because they can carry
or county, and good men are turned or kept out to make room for
the "boys."

tes, recently, a superintendent with a national reputation resigned,
essure, because he could not be used by the politicians. If it
nes, no matter what party was responsible. The spoils system
where, but when it takes possession of those departments which
health, which concern humanity, which concern morals, when
ll be county [illegible] officer and who shall hold office in the State
who shall be wardens of the penitentiary and the reformatory
stem is stained with blood and is an enemy of the human race.
to [illegible] so [illegible] [illegible] As we think of these men,
[illegible] we gather our garments about us and we thank God that
[illegible] these prisoners. There is a strange disposition
[illegible]

long list of capital crimes, and besides these a great number of punishments which are capital in everything but name.

The second system of dealing with our criminal brethren amounts substantially to treating them as valuable, but dangerous, beasts of labor. They are securely tied up and forced to work, not with any hope of bettering their condition by labor, nor from any appeal to their conscience or better feeling, but simply under pressure of fear. Although this plan keeps prisoners alive, there is in it no thought of reformation for them; on the contrary, its tendency is to make him, any day, more of a brute and less of a man.

From a purely commercial point of view in the eyes of the mere political economist, and, provided the sole object of human society be to accumulate wealth, much can be said in favor of this principle of treatment.

In modern times a third system has been devised, founded upon the theory that a bad man can be and ought to be made a good man by the very process which may also at once appease popular indignation caused by his behavior, and strengthen others when tempted to imitate him. This can not be applied to all men. There are some whom no form of penal discipline will ever make estimable or useful, or even harmless.

It is a defiance of common sense and a caricature of charity when a man who has passed most of his life in one prison after another for offenses involving great suffering to innocent people, vast injury to the vital interest of society, and profound moral turpitude is let loose again, to do once more what he has already so often done and been fruitlessly punished for doing.

No, must we forget that, after all, the end of punishment is to punish. A prison should not be a hell, but it fails of its purpose if it is too pleasant for a purgatory. Is it just or consistent to tell a man "Thou shalt not steal, even to get thy dinner," and then, because he has stolen, to see that he always has a good dinner? Is it right for the taxpayers to feed a rascal to the limit of his appetite while so many honest men go every night supperless to bed? Does this tend to make vice odious or to breed reverence for the law?

The report of the standing committee on criminal-law reform was read by Judge Wayland, chairman of the committee. It was as follows:

First among the causes which tend to promote the increase of crime we put unrestricted immigration. The year 1892 shows a large increase in immigration over 1891, and with the increase in quantity we have a decided falling off in quality. While the number are smaller from Great Britain and France they are larger from Hungary, Russia and Poland. The contrast is still more striking and impressive if we compare 1892, or the last fiscal year, with 1882. We find, then, that for this decade [illegible] the number of immigrants from England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland was [illegible] per cent, from Germany [illegible], 18 per cent; from Sweden and Norway nearly 7 per cent. During the same period the number of immigrants from Italy increased 94 per cent; from Poland 697 per cent; from Russia 116 per cent; from Austria and Hungary 174 per cent, while the falling off of immigration from all quarters in the same decade was a little over 21 per cent.

The inferences from these figures are not hard to find. We are, and for years have been receiving the very dregs of European society, the scum of European cities [illegible] the ignorant, the vicious, the anarchist by scores of thousands annually. A considerable proportion of the industrious and only moderately ignorant [illegible] our railroads and other public enterprises. The residue settle down in our cities, where the idle and shiftless add to the burdens of the taxpayers, the vicious and criminal are welcomed by congenial comrades, and the anarchist finds a ready audience for his sophistries and [illegible]. The results of this disposition of the newcomers are most lamentable. The unemployed and improvident soon suc-

[illegible] and drift into the ranks of the lawbreakers. These [illegible] have only lowered the rate of wages and added to [illegible] population. In a word, we have strained out the [illegible] and swallowed the Europe at the Narrows. The new [illegible] the prey of the most unscrupulous politicians, and the more ignorant [illegible] with the process of naturalization in our prime[illegible] The criminal, recently released or [illegible] votes [illegible] side of the honest citizen who pays [illegible] protection of a good government, and [illegible] to break. The evil is patent to everyone who [illegible] reflection. Year by year it is assuming more alarm[illegible] immigration has received a temporary check it has not [illegible] of the nation, but of a con[illegible] life of the individual. Let us be thankful that we have [illegible] as well as materially.

[illegible] proportion of the [illegible] preponderating percent[illegible] are [illegible] the proportions and patrons of our saloons, are [illegible] screened. Here [illegible] the good become bad, the bad [illegible] There is grim irony [illegible] the police whom its agents have [illegible] honest [illegible] in office [illegible] legislation from those whom it has [illegible] The respectable part of [illegible] against the common enemy in social column [illegible] legislation. The adult criminal must [illegible]

[illegible] criminals vagabonds [illegible] to the wholesale manufacture of [illegible] State has no right to [illegible]

[illegible] Rev. E. H. Wines with [illegible] ineffectual to attempt [illegible] The State, he said, [illegible]

Judge WAYLAND. Abolish outside assistance and send him to the almshouse. Keep him there until he shows that he is capable of earning a living.

Secretary MILLIGAN. We might get up a bill to pension aged paupers. Such a bill was introduced in England. Pensions seem very popular here.

Mr. LUTTON. The total lack of the knowledge of any trade is a great source of criminality among the rising generation. This is due in a measure to trade organizations, which prevent young people from learning a trade.

Gen. FOSTER. The point is not well taken. Boys are criminals before they come to the age to learn trades. Trade unions control certain trades, but every honest and industrious man in this country can earn an honest living if he so wishes.

Mrs. DAVIS. I know nearly 300 honest men—able-bodied and healthy—who are hunting work. Where can they get it? They know no trade, but would be glad to work. I would be pleased to see a Congress that would provide work for the unemployed.

Gen. CHAMBERLAIN. Knowledge of a trade prevents crime. If more men had a settled occupation there would be less crime. Saloons play a most important part in crime. This demands heroic treatment. I would have rum free and divide cities into districts. Or if not, and men become drunkards, then confine them until cured and make the saloons support the man's family.

Judge FOLLETT. Criminals among boys do not come totally from the poorest class. I am poor, move among the poor, and know whereof I speak. Children should not be taken from their parents or homes. Christian men and women should go to them there. There are countless honest, industrious men who can not get work and are forced into crime.

Rev. Dr. PROCTER. A great source of evil is the publication of this cheap and degrading literature. Could this not be stopped?

Mrs. Gen. FOSTER. The debate has taken a wide latitude. The report is on criminal law reform. These publications are a matter pertinent to the question, as is also the saloon. I fear the former more than the latter. The first you can detect easily; the latter is hidden until your boy is totally corrupted.

Rev. Dr. BAIRD. Crime is often the direct result of teaching, or, at least, of not teaching the saving truths of Christianity. Christianity is a part and parcel of the common law.

Judge WAYLAND. The committee is neither omniscient nor omnipotent. We make certain suggestions, and leave them to you for thought and debate. I see nothing impracticable in any of the suggestions of the report, which, I think, covers most of the questions. I agree with much that has been said. I think that no honest, industrious man will have much difficulty in getting work. Many of the foreigners that pour into this country year by year can do it, and they are only common laborers. Contract laborers are kept out.

Capt. Nicholson sent a communication offering his resignation and giving his reasons for so doing. It was read by Capt. E. S. Wright, and was as follows:

The Wardens' Association for the Registration and Identification of Criminals was organized March 8, 1887, nearly six years ago, and started out with the approval of every good citizen having any knowledge of its objects. For some time I have been haunted with the query, "Whither are you drifting?" To which I can only answer, "Into the quicksands of sectarianism." The indifference of prison managers generally to everything necessitated a crippled. This seeming indifference can not be accounted for on any other grounds than the assistance of their party to power, so far has contracted all other considerations, hence the difficulty of getting a full and complete membership. We appealed to every governor of every State and Territory in the Union to become members of an organization that offered to fill a much needed want; we looked our appeal in facts that could not be gainsaid, but there

[illegible]ntists are striving to probe the whole question of penology [illegible] This association [illegible] by striving [illegible] prominent causes, whether [illegible] would remove all necessity [illegible] the registration [illegible] of the chaotic schemes of [illegible] growth of crime and [illegible] of all [illegible] available. And now [illegible] of the United States [illegible] gathering its work. I [illegible]

[illegible]ome Features of Prison Discipline" was read by [illegible], warden of the Western State Penitentiary, Allegheny, as follows:

[illegible]

are easily reached. Instead of county prisons of many kinds, a few district prisons, regardless of county lines, governed and organized in the same way as the State prisons, should take their place. The change would be at once a relief and check to much moral corruption. Some of the county prisons could be used for female prisoners, the criminal insane, or as police stations.

As a condition precedent to success in prison administration and reform, a good staff of officers is required. Conditions of prison control vary greatly in the different sections of the United States, and no general lines seem likely to be laid down that can be absolutely followed as they read. But any line of treatment which provides for steady and deterrent discipline must carry with it a recognition of the fact that the nearer prison treatment agrees with the conditions of free labor, the fewer will be the causes of discontent. In free shops the employer pays for labor done; the workman keeps himself. So when prisons pay as strict attention to all details—credit for every hour of labor and charge for every hour of idleness—and not till then will the problem reach a proper solution. Upon this basis a true classification should be made and useful labor given.

At the conclusion of this address Mr. Crawford asked this question: "How would you discipline an incorrigible boy of 15 years?" Captain Massie replied that he would use all means of persuasion and gentle treatment, and if that failed, would whip the youngster. This met with much approval.

Hon. Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labor, spoke on "The relation of economic conditions to the causes of crime." He said in part:

Criminology is divided, according to science, into several distinct and separate divisions. To fully understand it, one must make a thorough study of penology, theology, and economics. A man commits crime largely through environment or association.

Scientists have asserted that certain brain formations are always necessary to the commission of certain crimes. But this is not always so. If it were, the study of the various sciences already mentioned would be useless and unnecessary. I am in sympathy with the views of scientific criminology. I believe the criminal to be an undeveloped man, morally and mentally. We are, however, obliged to consider the criminal as acting under free will, a free agent, with the object of satisfying a want and a desire. Hence, in all discussions of economics all great questions resolve themselves upon the labor question.

The world has seen three great labor systems—the feudal, slave, and wage systems. Under the former system the serf had no hope; hence history tells us of bands of thieves and robbers that flourished then. The negro slave was physically comfortable, had hope, and crime was comparatively scarce. In early days criminality grew out of physical want. Hunger leads men to commit more petty crimes than anything else. The great question is, How shall poverty and criminality be abolished? As the condition of the laborer rises, pauperism and criminality fall. The evils we are considering have always existed. Employment of the unemployed will not stop pauperism or crime; education will not, Christianity will not, but all these combined will work together with great powers for good, and will go far.

Education is better than the code of criminal laws. Those engaged in the most skilled labor are less likely to become paupers or criminals. Of 6,168 homicides in this country in 1880, over 5,000 had no trades. During periods of industrial depressions crime flourishes most. The lines of crime rise and fall with the lines of prosperity. Political economy is largely the law of demand and supply. This also bears directly on crime. If the supply is greater than the demand, the weaker industrial houses fall, and burglary and theft breaks out among those thus cast out of employ-

nts, etc., is to the case of the great iron mills in Pennsylvania.
pel was conscious to commit crime. Social science teaches
The good health of the people is unfavorable to crime. Sani-
t of the nature of social science and political economy
food, clothing, industry, and morality.

temperance factors are one and same one. When employers of
temperance and good conditions of employment, a great step has
been made. When we have more healthy homes, healthy children
sion of crime. Insane and in poverty is lessened, crime is
the result of the laboring man good conscience. Ignorance
good desires and aspirations. With the advance
of labor organized and society to avoid many evils
to corporations to secure more equitable
better results. With continued improve
the Master's Kingdom better results.

followed by Rev. Frederick H. Wines, who said

[illegible]

said that few young criminals had ever thought of
authority to learn a trade because of two factors of
factory system instead of the apprentice sys-
[illegible]

Much has been accomplished in the organization of police forces and improvement of methods within the latter half of the present century. The chain gangs, the lash, the pillory, the indiscriminate herding together of the sexes, are things of the past. The neglect of injured, infirm, or insane people on the part of police officers no longer exists. Distribution of the police force in our cities into squads and companies and divisions, with proper superintendent officers over each, responsible to another in authority, has been productive of better discipline, and has resulted in vastly improved service. The adoption of the patrol wagon has turned away great reproach from the force. The adoption of an ambulance system and the relief corps, one of the improvements of late years, has added materially not only to the efficiency of the force, but to its popularity. The abolition of the antiquated methods of detective service and espionage which offered premiums to perjury and falsehood has removed much of the ill feeling of other days.

The introduction of the police telegraph and telephone system has much to do with the improvement of the service, and has not only brought the police departments of our various cities into more harmonious relations with the public, but has inspired the latter with a degree of interest and confidence in the force to which the foregoing years were strangers.

No police force can meet the duties required of it or answer the expectation of the public where the members of it are controlled either in their appointment or in the discharge of their duties by political considerations. Where the alderman is encouraged in demanding that so many appointees shall be taken from his ward and selected by himself, it is useless to expect from these appointees faithful service and loyalty to the head of the department, unless the power behind the throne, to whom they recognize themselves as indebted for their appointment and continuance on the force, is in harmony, politically, with their superiors. The trouble which this state of things produces manifests itself in a thousand ways. Orders are evaded or neglected; abuses are ignored or winked at; crimes are permitted to go unpunished. Numberless wrongs and outrages of a more petty character go unreported, all because between the head of the department and the officer stands the politician with his open promises or secret assurance that neglect of duty will be condoned, thus paralyzing the operations of the force in the most effective manner.

Another great obstacle to effective police work is the lack of such systematic classification of the prisons or places of detention as will prevent association with each other of persons detained for trial, and will permit the complete separation of all misdemeanants from felons, and all first offending criminals from adult habituals. The third obstacle to the success of police work exists in the system which permits examining magistrates, or police justices, as they are called in many cities, to receive fees for taking bail of arrested prisoners, and for continuance of their cases in court. Too much stress can not be laid, also, on the condemnation which should be placed on the receiving of bonds without making careful inquiry into the reliability of the bondsman. The professional bailer is frequently a straw bailer, and many a criminal goes free through lack of scrutiny on the part of the magistrate into the character of the bail he receives.

But all these results would be accomplished in time if our police and penal systems can be taken out of the hands of the politicians and run solely and exclusively upon their own merits. Whether it will take one century to arouse our people to the necessity of such action as will produce this result is a question. But, whether it takes a century or a shorter time, it is the duty of associations like yours to din it into the ears of the public, not trust to Providence for the result.

In his report on prison discipline, Capt. Massie, of Toronto, said:

It is difficult to get efficient wardens—that is, men who thoroughly understand and are imbued with the spirit of prison discipline. The warden must be given wholly to the work. If he fail to stamp his institution with his own characteristics it is clear that he has no predilection for his work. This is always a test. We must

characteristics on his wards, the prisoners, and also on his subor
pline is one of the greatest evils in many such institution. There
phee and department of the institution fails in its work. It is
is [illegible] treatment in will descend to their level, or
Canada we compel the men to become subservient to the rules
ink that [illegible] pursuits in such institutions are absolutely
ar [illegible] for, no progress among young men unless both hand

[illegible] when you are angry or when he is angry. I think combo
[illegible] is debasing, unhealthy and worse than useless. Corporal
[illegible] angle, works most advantageously with us.

nson, superintendent of the Women's Reformatory, at
gave a short description of the workings of the insti
ents:

[illegible] graded according to merit. First they are put in a
[illegible] to stay with the misdemeanants, and when this is demonstrated the
[illegible] skies [illegible] them. Their work is not rated accord
[illegible] the spirit and the temper with which it is accomplished
[illegible] privileges [illegible] grades which [illegible]
[illegible] that they appreci
[illegible] keep their cheerful and hopeful
[illegible]

s of reformation, Mrs. Johnson said:

[illegible] however is of
[illegible] that a prisoner
[illegible] generally but [illegible]
[illegible] We [illegible]

be short, but sharp, and without the option of a fine, it would be more salutary. I believe that in our State such a law would increase but little the number of prisoners, while it would enable us to dispense with much of our police force and in a few years close up several dozen orphan asylums and diminish pauperism fully one-half. The prisoners who remain for longer periods in prison should be taught and made to work. The best punishment is the cat or whip, administered in kind seriousness by the chief officer of the prison. The objection to physical treatment is a purely sentimental one, and is based on an alleged condition of nervous susceptibility, which rarely exists in the convict, who knowingly subjects himself to it. There is serious need for classification. We treat all alike—the corrigible and the irreclaimable, young and old, recruits and veterans. Then, again, no prisoner should be allowed to return to society until he is fit to do so with safety to that society. There should also be juvenile reformatories, where the young should be incarcerated and treated, freed from the baneful influence of the older and habitual criminal.

A paper read was on "The Work of the Prison Physician," by Dr. Hamilton D. Wey, of Elmira, N. Y., who is chairman of the committee on that work. He said:

Without entering into a detailed description of the necessary qualifications of prison physicians, it may incidentally be stated that they are of two kinds—professional and nonprofessional. In regard to the former, he should be well grounded in his profession, familiar with the general practice of medicine and surgery, possessing a knowledge of mental disorders, and of sufficient acuteness and discernment of observation to differentiate between true and feigned disease, fictitious and factitious affections. In addition, he should not be so much of a student and absorbed in his profession as to lose his interest in and to leave himself no time or opportunities for general study of men and affairs. In the exercise of his daily duties and contact with the men under his charge he should, in a true scientific spirit, accept humanity as it is, and not as he would have it, and evince a familiarity with the thoughts and ways of men who, consciously and unconsciously, are in a state of opposition to society, and this can be done without sacrifice of dignity and impairment of his influence.

Dr. Wey spoke of the attempts at deception practiced by prisoners. "Great care should be taken in the treatment of the prisoners, both in administering medicine and withholding it. The physician should be absolutely free from all outside influences. Relatives of prisoners are especially dangerous, as they are anxious to secure his recommendations for light jobs or soft positions for their imprisoned relatives."

Dr. J. B. Ransom, of Dannemora, N. Y., spoke of grades in prisons. He said:

I believe that our prisons should be graded into first, second, and third grades, with each prison a grade by itself; the first grade prison to have for its inmates a class of convicts who, by reason of their former life, natural qualities, or acquired manners, or who, by meritorious conduct or conformity to discipline in other grades, have earned a promotion to the first, and hence can be rather safely trusted to remain honest, not at all practicable to the whole en masse. The second grade prison should be constituted of that class of men who, while not entirely to be trusted with the privileges of the first, are at the same time not absolutely bad men. The third grade prison should be the incorrigible, and consist of men who have been expelled or extirpated from the two grades above. The industries, officering, clothing, and food should correspond with the consistent requirements of each grade. I also think that modern prisons should be built with larger cells. No cell should be less

and should be furnished with light and water, and well venti-
son should have isolation quarters, not composed of dark cells
hole-some, unhealthy, demoralizing; but light, well aired cells,
e and stubborn prisoners can be confined and separated entirely
ows.

was also in favor of corporal punishment in some cases.
institutions for the young he thought it almost indis-

F. Spalding, of Boston, secretary of the Massachusetts
tion, read a paper upon "The Misdemeanant," who, he
ally the drunkard. He said:

[illegible] is not interrupted in his career so long as he has money
, and when he is imprisoned it is not because he has been drunk
but because he is poor. Carefully discriminate between the m
y drunk and the habitual drunkard. If he belong to the former
not, warn him of the danger of repeating his offense, and let him
the habitual drunkard, imprison him permanently for his own prote
his friends and the average of society. When he is [illegible]
. If he is a dipsomaniac he needs medical treatment as much as
ted with any other [illegible]

[illegible] of non-[illegible] drunkards without opportunity for [illegible]
[illegible] or because the [illegible] of no other place of [illegible] the
higher grades of [illegible] institutions. The dipsomaniac should
[illegible] the other [illegible] drunkards in reformatories. Both [illegible]
[illegible] treated [illegible] the administration of medicine to [illegible]
good [illegible]. [illegible] should not be [illegible] severe [illegible]
[illegible] should be set for the [illegible] purpose. [illegible]
[illegible]

of New York, spoke of [illegible] and corporal punish-

To these two classes belong the local disorders which have been found in the brains of criminals. They have been denominated criminal brains. The constitutional criminal is a tainted individual, and has the same relation to crime as the epileptic to convulsions—he can't help it. The essential reason of abnormal brain action is abnormal brain structure. The application of these facts is likely to create a veritable revolution in ethics, psychology, and jurisprudence. I can not go so far as to believe in a special type of criminal brains. Crime is not an entity, an absolute and well defined manifestation of the same kind and tendency; it is as manifold as human instincts or tendencies in general. The same changes which have been claimed for crime are those of insanity. Insanity is the field in which crime may grow. Facts go very far to intimate that crime is apt to be insanity plus its danger to society.

Among criminals a great many anomalies have been observed. They refer mostly to the shape and structure of the head and brain, and to the functions of the system of circulation. The prognostic shape is quite frequent. The eyebrows and the underlying arches of the frontal bone are often excessive, the bones in general are thick, and the occiput is oblique. This much is certain, that in criminals either very large heads or very small heads have frequently been met with. The occiput is often flat, the forehead reclining, and wrinkles of the coverings of the soft parts quite frequent. Hair and beard are often scanty, the nose irregular and inclined to one side, the eyes large. The eyelids are in close proximity to the nose, the iris pigmented and defective, its color varying in the two eyes, and the pupils not centrally located. The nails of the fingers and toes are malformed; so are the feet. In many, blushing is not infrequent, tobacco and alcohol not tolerated, and fainting spells and convulsions frequent.

Many of these anomalies, however, are met with amongst noncriminals. Still, when there are many of such in the same individual, we must not forget their connection with and dependence on the condition of the nerve centers. Disturbances in the nature and functions of any vital organ do not always require grave causes. Slight changes in circulations, particularly when they persist, are sufficient to create an irritation. The higher an organ is in the vital scale—for instance, the brain—the more readily will it submit to essential alterations. From this lecture you can draw the following summary: The function of an organ depends on its structure and composition, the changes of functions, or changes in structure. The intellect, reasoning power, judgment, and will powers are located in and dependent on the construction of the large hemispheres of the brain. They do not exist where there are no hemispheres, are defective when the organ is inefficiently developed, and are apt to be morbid when the hemispheres are diseased. The anomalies of the hemispheres are either arrests of developments or acquired alterations. The first are all prenatal, the latter are either contracted before birth, during birth, or during life.

The effects of a disease do not show themselves uninterruptedly, just as a malarial fever does not always exhibit its high temperatures, and its chilly, acquired alterations may not be always evident or perceptible to everybody. As the influence of alcohol on the system may change the structure of the liver, heart, kidney, and brain to a dangerous degree, though it can not yet be recognized, so the influence on the brain, which is effected for instance by training and education, and by habits, is positive, though it can not always be appreciated or calculated. Therefore, diseases are not always recognizable. The effects of structural changes of the brain, from whatsoever cause, are either feebleness or perversion. The many forms of insanity, both intellectual and ethical, are thereby explained.

Insanity, as well as that form of alteration which is called criminality, is not possible with a normal brain. Neither form of alteration, insanity and crime, depend on an invariable and identical alteration. Therefore, there is no special type of insanity or of criminality. Thus, again, the recognition of either, or of its physical causes, is rendered difficult. There is but one thing fixed; that is, the relation of causes and effects, the correlation of physical causes, and mental and moral symp-

have most to fear is that even in our time, while punishment still
not retribution we are in constant danger of not recognizing
f possible cerebral action, called crime. The grossest errors have
in that respect
mistake were made in a hundred convictions and death sentences
t afford to make that mistake. You and I may blunder, but the
ford the brutality of capital punishment as long as the
in cases does, possibly disclosed. The place for transgressors is
keeping. Let us have done with killing. Let us see to it that we
y have no reason to look upon our short-sighted barbarism as we
d a the century of the torturer and witch burner.

of the committee on discharged prisoners, said:

ooking to New York conference of the professional discharged pri
ning, but rather to aid them by using them as an argument. We
d hard among the discharged prisoners, who have, under the old
ctice, our prisons, been turned out have no trades. Our work has

owed by Rev. Louis F. Zinkhan, who sketched the work
the Maryland penitentiary. He called attention to the
f reformation that have been established through its
are now continued a large number of youthful incorrigi
formerly been most unjustly and inhumanly thrown into
ry, with hardened criminals. Many reformed ex prise
ibuted to the funds of the association. Mr. W. F. Spaeth
n, spoke of the work in his State. He said that the
l Society of that State rarely gave money direct to dis
ners, but bought tools and implements necessary to the
of their trades.

crime in its vital relation to education. The method of study is an investigation of the criminal himself, both mentally and physically, so that the deeper and constant causes of crime can be traced. There is no other rational road to the prevention and repression of crime. Whatever the remedy, causes must be studied first. Negative results are as important to science as positive results. If it could be shown what crime is incurable or what degree of reformation can be expected, that would be valuable knowledge.

If, as Lombroso thinks, crime is a return to the primitive state of our ancestors, the criminal being a savage born into modern civilization, then for such there is little hope for reformation. But they are criminals by nature and constitute a very small proportion, less than one tenth. The French school of criminology has shown that the greater part of crime arises out of social conditions and hence is amenable to reformation by the changing of these conditions. The motto of one of the best reformatories in the world (Elmira) is: "No man, whatever his offense, ought ever to be discharged from restraint except upon reasonable evidence that he is morally, intellectually, and physically capable of earning a livelihood."

D'Olivecrona, author of a French book on habitual criminality, asserts that three fourths of those who enter prison have been conducted to crime from the results of a neglected education.

Now, education, in the sense of intellectual instruction alone, is not adequate to reform school children who spend most of their time on the street or with criminal, drunken, or idle parents. Some of the inmates of reformatories are practically incorrigible on entering. It is expected of the reformatories to erase the indelible criminal impressions upon children from birth, or before. Instead of deserving criticism, it is surprising that reformatories do as much as they do. No great decrease in crime is to be expected until children receive the moral and social education of a home or home like institution. But much remains to be done after a child has had this good start. The means of prevention from this time on consists in moral, mental, and physical training, that is education in the true sense.

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